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A Factual Study of ASIA

W. Stanley Rycroft ⋮ Myrtle M. Clemmer

Jefferson

A FACTUAL STUDY OF ASIA

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W. Stanley Rycroft

and

Myrtle M.Clemmer

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PREFACE

The main purpose in preparing this study was to provide some basic source material and a body of facts which could facilitate an understanding of Asia today.

It is the authors' conviction that the salient features of the physical or geographical background, the characteristics of the demographic, economic, social, cultural, political and religious situations, as well as the development of the communications in a country and the health of the people, must all be viewed from the point of view of their inter-relatedness in the process of nation-building.

The revolutionary changes affecting these aspects of life are not the same for all countries. Since the scope of this study could not permit a treatment of each nation, an attempt has been made to emphasize some of the major problems of the area, citing examples of importance and significance from various countries.

--W.Stanley Rycroft
Secretary for Research

Myrtle M.Clemmer
Research Assistant

January 1963.

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A FACTUAL STUDY OF ASIA

Introduction

The emerging nations of Asia may well hold the key to the world of tomorrow. The intrinsic importance of the area is a theme expressed by many scholars and writers. "The richness of the resources to be found here - the human, cultural, and material resources...once released will make a contribution to the future of our globe second to none."(1)

Throughout this vast area we find that since World War II the principle of self-determination has largely found fulfillment. This, however, is merely the prelude to the social, political, and economic transformation. Under the impact of new ideas and the technology of the west, we see the passing away of an old society which had become static, and the release of dynamic aspirations and creative energies of hundreds of millions of people now being directed toward the building of new nations.

"It is time we turned east toward Asia and to listen and to learn." These words were used by the Under Secretary of State Christian A.Herter at the Sixth National Conference convened by the United States National Commission for UNESCO in 1957.(2) "Technology has made the world smaller. Nations find themselves as close neighbors, as it were, on a crowded street." An Asian voice, that of Ahmed S.Bokhari, a Pakistani, added "...our world is crowded and unless we open the windows of the mind we shall be suffocated and live blindly in a mental and spiritual night of our own making."

Contacts among nations and peoples are much greater now than ever before. Distance has been "annihilated." The technological conquest of space and distance has brought people more closely together in a physical sense, and this greatly increases the need to bridge the intellectual, emotional, cultural, and spiritual chasms which still separate different peoples.

The area of the world covered in this study includes all the major countries of Asia from Pakistan to Japan. More than half of the world's people live in this vast expanse of territory, and nearly all major races and religions of mankind are represented in the area. Australia and New Zealand, with their basic western culture, are also grouped with the Asian nations. There are few countries so isolated and separated by so

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(1) Johnson, U.Alexis. The Emerging Nations of Asia, in an address made before the Institute of World Affairs at Pasadena, California, December 6, 1961.

(2) Turn East Toward Asia. Sixth National Conference Report, United States National Commission for UNESCO, San Francisco, November 6-9, 1957. p. 9.

many miles from the nearest independent state as Australia and New Zealand; yet these countries are in the process of realizing their own national identity and finding their place in the shrinking world community. Geographically, and to some extent economically, both Australia and New Zealand are coming to be more associated with Asia, while the Christian churches of the two countries have a sense of kinship with the Christians of Asia.

Important differences exist among the individual countries and regions of Asia in terms of area, population, resources, cultural traditions, as well as in patterns of political, economic, and social development. Their peoples have distinctive records of cultural achievement in centuries past, and they have experienced varying degrees of contact with the modern West. A few Asian countries (e.g. Thailand and Japan) have long been independent states, while the majority have emerged only recently from colonial or semi-colonial rule.

Along with much diversity, certain factors and problems are common to most Asian states today. All Asian nations, except industrial Japan, have basically agrarian societies, characterized by low standards of living and limited opportunities for individual advancement. Many Asian governments have initiated programs for economic development, but lack of domestic capital, shortage of trained technicians, unsettled political conditions, mounting population pressures, and other obstacles have made it difficult to carry them out.

Rapid social change is frequently referred to as a common feature in present-day Asia. Traditional patterns of family life and other social relationships are breaking down, while new modes of living are emerging, particularly in urban areas. The process of change is creating new insecurities for the individual as well as many complexities and challenges for the state.

A FACTUAL STUDY OF ASIA can only deal with some aspects of the problems that beset the countries of this region. The authors have attempted to show the basic characteristics of poverty, health, education, religion, and to indicate that economic progress cannot be solved by methods evolved from exclusively Western experience. It is becoming increasingly apparent that Asia's fundamental difficulties will be solved in Asia, if they are to be solved at all, although the Asian leaders are increasingly aware of the interdependence of nation-states and peoples. As they have met to discuss programs in the fields of education, health, and communications, in recent years, Asian leaders have demonstrated not only a sense of urgency, but also commendable leadership in planning realistically for the future.

This study was undertaken at the request of Dr. D.T.Niles, General Secretary of the East Asia Christian Conference, to serve as resource material for regional conferences, to be held in Madras, Tokyo, and Singapore, early in 1963.

Special acknowledgement is made of the time and effort devoted to reading the manuscript by Dr. Masao Takenaka, Professor of Christian Ethics and Sociology of Religion at Doshisha University, Japan, and currently Henry Luce Visiting Professor on World Christianity at Union Theological Seminary, New York. Recognition is also made of the valuable comments given on a number of chapters by Mr. M.M.Thomas, Director of The Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society, Bangalore, India.

The authors are also indebted to the following persons representing organizations in the National Council of Churches of Christ in the U.S.A.: Dr. Wallace C. Merwin, Executive Secretary for the Far Eastern Office; Dr. Barnerd M. Luben and Miss Beverly Chain of RAVEMCCO (Radio,Visual Education and Mass Communication Committee); Dr. Frederick G. Scovel, Christian Medical Council for Overseas Work; and to Miss Margaret Flory, Dr.John B.Weir, and Dr. Winburn T. Thomas, of the Commission on Ecumenical Mission and Relations of the United Presbyterian Church in the U.S.A.; for reading certain parts of the manuscript and offering helpful information and suggestions. The chapters on New Zealand and Australia were largely prepared by Rev. Alan A.Brash, Secretary for Inter-Church Aid of the East Asia Christian Conference, and Rev. Vaughan Hinton, Secretary for Public Relations of the Australian Council of Churches, respectively. To all we express our sincere appreciation.

A GUIDE TO GEOGRAPHIC DIVISIONS OF ASIA AND OCEANIA

(With major countries in each Division)

SOUTH ASIA	SOUTHEAST ASIA	FAR EAST (East Asia)	OCEANIA
AFGHANISTAN	BRITISH BORNEO(1)	CHINA (Mainland)	AUSTRALIA
BHUTAN	BURMA	HONG KONG	A. Australian Continent
CEYLON	CAMBODIA	JAPAN	B. Territories under Australian administration
INDIA	INDONESIA	MACAU	Cocoa(Keeling) Is.
MALDIVE ISLANDS	LAOS	MONGOLIAN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC	Christmas Is.
NEPAL	FEDERATION OF MALAYA	KOREA (North)	Nauru
PAKISTAN	THE PHILIPPINES	REPUBLIC OF KOREA (South)	New Guinea(Austr.)
	PORTUGUESE TIMOR(2)	RYUKYU ISLANDS	Norfolk Is.
	SINGAPORE	OKINAWA	Papua
	THAILAND		NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA
	VIET-NAM - North		NEW ZEALAND (incl. Western Samoa)
	- South		

Note: For an explanation of these geographic divisions and definitions, see Geographic Regions of Asia: South and East by G. Etzel Pearcy. Department of State Publication 7262, Far Eastern Series 108. U.S.A. Bureau of Public Affairs, 1961.

(1) Includes Brunei, Sarawak and North Borneo.

(2) Portuguese Timor is the eastern part of the Malay island of that name, Indonesia claimimg the Western part.

THE AREA AND THE PEOPLE

The greatest of continents, Asia occupies a third of the world's land surface and contains more than half the world's population. Ancient, highly developed civilizations flourished in Asia while Europe was still in the Stone Age. Cultures grew and declined, and the great mass of the people suffered without much relief from the age-old evils of mankind - poverty, hunger, disease and illiteracy. However, a new awakening has come and a new hope.

In the past twenty years, most of Asia has been rediscovering its selfhood. Many of the countries achieved independence after World War II, others are older established states. All of them are striving to adapt indigenous social patterns to the complexities of modern life, to develop their economies and to raise both the cultural level and the standard of living of their people. The past two decades have brought about a spectacular transformation in Asia.

Definition of the Area

ASIA - this great land mass with a rim of islands, is in a sense a geographical expression, as there is no unity or common denominator that can link north and south, east and west, the mainland and the islands.

There are three broad regions: (1) India, Pakistan, and Ceylon; (2) Southeast Asia; and (3) Far East - China, Japan, and the Philippines - which taken together generally connote East Asia.

Academic study of Asia generally divides the continent into a number of areas: Eastern Asia (or the Far East), being primarily China, Japan and Korea; Southwest Asia (India, Pakistan, Ceylon); and Southeast Asia. Geographically, there may be some justification in viewing Southeast Asia as a peninsular extension with adjacent islands of the continent. Historically, also, there may be justification for a separate treatment of Southeast Asia as a crossroad of the impact and interaction of the civilizations of the Indian subcontinent and the Chinese mainland.

For this study, the broad geographic zone sweeping around the southern and eastern edges of Asia comprises: (1) South Asia; (2) Southeast Asia; and (3) The Far East (East Asia). (See A GUIDE TO GEOGRAPHIC DIVISIONS OF ASIA AND OCEANIA). Oceania (Australia and New Zealand) has also been added to this study, as this area is becoming more and more related to Asia in terms of trade and the research projects supported in Asian countries.

South Asia - The term South Asia should be distinguished from "southern Asia", a strictly direction-location term which could conceivably include as much as one-half of the entire continent and be geographically accurate. This same area has at times been placed within the domain of the Far East, especially among historians. G.Etzel Pearcy, geographer for the U.S. Department of State, comments that "by virtue of its central position on the southern side of the

MAP OF ASIA - 1959

MAP NO. 550.3 UNITED NATIONS
DECEMBER 1959

continent, one might facetiously define South Asia as the zone where the Middle East and Far East overlap."(1)

Within South Asia one finds well-established subregions, most of them related to the broad geographic features of India, Pakistan and Ceylon. These include the lowlands, extending for a distance of more than 2,000 miles. Through a series of interrelated valleys flow the waters of the Ganges, Indus, and Brahmaputra Rivers and their tributaries.

North of these lowlands rises the mountain wall forming the southern reaches of the Himalayas. Except for Kashmir, only fragments of India and Pakistan lie in the high mountainous region. Nepal, Bhutan and Sikkim may be grouped as the Himalayan states.

The Deccan Plateau roughly coincides with triangular-shaped peninsular India. "Deccan" has become a regional term, usually implying the high parts of the country south of the Narbada River. Both India and Pakistan have many "regions", probably the two best known are Punjab and Bengal.

Southeast Asia. Pearcy indicates that university circles can be given the credit for the increased use of the term "Southeast Asia". The pattern of political sovereignty in Southeast Asia resembles a patchwork design. Russell H. Fifield(2) of the University of Michigan counts eight independent states as comprising this region - Burma, Thailand, Viet-Nam, Cambodia, Laos, Malaya, Philippines, and Indonesia. Also included are the State of Singapore and the fragmentary dependencies of Sarawak, Brunei, North Borneo and Portuguese Timor, all insular and sharing islands with Indonesia. Sarawak, Brunei, and North Borneo collectively make up British Borneo, a term sometimes confused with North Borneo.

Other authorities would reduce the extent of Southeast Asia as defined by Dr. Fifield. British usage, for example, tends to omit the Philippines. A further concept which is seldom heard is Malaysia, which refers to an insular Southeast Asia, comprising all the islands - including the Philippines - that lie off the coast of Asia between the Indian and Pacific Oceans. It is the largest island group in the world. These islands would also be included in the concept of Australasia.

Far East. Along the periphery of the continent of Asia, one reaches the vast region made up of China, Japan, and Korea. "Far East" appears to be the more widely used term for the area in question. It has the asset of long tradition in applying to the eastern part of Asia. However, "Far East" denotes

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(1) Pearcy, G.Etzel. Geographic Regions of Asia: South and East. Reprint from the Department of State Bulletin - February 1, 1960. Department of State Publication 7262, Far Eastern Series 108. p. 3.

(2) For a further discussion of the political divisions of Southeast Asia, see The Diplomacy of Southeast Asia: 1945-1958 by Russell H.Fifield.

no sharp delineation. Another term, which has some specific regional connotations, is "East Asia". Less widely recognized than "Far East", it may be applied to about the same area. In the new geography textbook, "The Pattern of Asia",(1) edited by Norton Ginsburg of the University of Chicago, "East Asia" is given preference over the "Far East".

The area normally included in the Far East breaks down into two main divisions: (1) Northeast Asia and (2) China. The Japanese islands and Korea together make up "Northeast Asia", a term rapidly gaining favor politically, if not geographically. Manchuria and the eastern part of the Soviet Union also fit into this locational concept of the region, since they lie north and east in Asia.

The vast area of Greater China in its traditional sense includes Manchuria, Mongolia, Sinkiang,Tibet, and China Proper. This study will make no attempt to cover this territory, with the exception of China Proper, and then only as it may have some bearing on the total area of the Far East.

The Land

Referring to Asia as a whole, it is the greatest of the continents as far as territory goes, covering one-third of the world's land surface with its seventeen million square miles. In this area are concentrated one-half of the world's population.

See TABLE No. 1 - AREA, POPULATION AND DENSITY

TABLE No. 2 - BASIC DATA - TOPOGRAPHY: PRINCIPAL PHYSICAL FEATURES: CLIMATE

From the point of view of a geographer, "much of Asia is unattractive for human settlement. Despite the pressure of population, less than ten percent is under cultivation. Too much of the continent is too cold, too dry, too mountainous, too infertile, or too remote to be attractive to man. Some areas are even too hot, or too wet, or too flat...Despite these handicaps,it has nearly three times the population density of the rest of the world, with an average of 72 people per square mile as compared with 26 elsewhere."(2)

The area we are considering consists of two great peninsulas and thousands of islands, large and small. The first large peninsula - SOUTH ASIA - comprises India, which lies like a triangle between the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. This area is divided into three physical zones, 1) the Himalayas, consisting of three mountain ranges enclosing beautiful fertile valleys and plateaus; 2) the densely populated, rich alluvial plain stretching 1,500 miles from West Pakistan to the Bay of Bengal; 3) the Deccan Peninsula, separated from the plain by a series of hills and mountains. Parts of India suffer from annual floods and frequent famines. There are hot, wet summers and warm, dry winters in the lowlands and the highland climate varies, because of the altitude, from warm to cool, and very wet to dry. The mighty rivers, the Ganges

(1) Ginsburg, Norton (Ed.) The Pattern of Asia. Englewood Cliffs,New Jersey: Prentice-Hall,Inc. 1958.

(2) Cressey,George B. Asia's Lands and Peoples. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc. 1951. pp. 10-11.

and the Brahmaputra, rise beyond the central Himalayas and flow through the northern plain on their way to the Bay of Bengal.

The second large peninsula - SOUTHEAST ASIA - includes Burma, Thailand, Malaya, as well as their neighbors, Laos, Cambodia, and Viet-Nam. The rivers Irrawaddy, Salwen and Mekong rise in the Himalayan system and flow more or less parallel until they go their separate ways into the Bay of Bengal and the South China Sea.

Southeast Asia (Burma, Thailand, Malaya, Indonesia, Sarawak, the Philippines) is a tropical area spread across the equator or near to it. It is an area "influenced by the great land masses of monsoon Asia and desert Australia ...January winds blow from the northeast as a combination of northeast trade winds and monsoon circulation which originated in the heart of Asia...Rainfall is a matter of exposure and topography, with nearly 100 inches in the plains and even heavier precipitation on windward slopes."(1)

The area of Southeast Asia abounds in rugged, trackless mountains rich in virgin forests and scarcely tapped minerals. There are dense jungles, fever-infested swamps, fertile inland plateaus, turbulent rivers, and rich river deltas and coastal plains. In the monsoon belt, wet and dry seasons alternate with regularity; outside of it the lowlands are hot and humid the year round. Temperature variations increase with altitude, and altitudes range from sea level to heights of more than 18,000 feet in the north, where the Burma-China border becomes indistinct.

"Indonesia is like a jigsaw puzzle flung capriciously across 3,000 miles of tropical sea. Some 3,000 volcanic and coral islands form this great archipelago, whose land surface is equal to one-sixth that of the United States. About one-fifth of the land is developed and it is here that most of the dense population is found. The ninety-five million Indonesians...range from the ex-head-hunting Dyaks of Borneo to Javanese ex-sultans. They constitute a handsome mélange of brown-skinned, quick-witted peoples suddenly propelled by national revolution from colonialism into independence...Indonesia exhibits a tropical luxuriance of geographical and cultural diversity; of mountains, rice terraces, jungle and swamp; of copra palms, rubber, rice, and oil wells; and of chronic political, economic, military and social crises."(2) The climate is tropical, with warm or hot summers and winters, the temperature often being moderated by proximity to the sea. Part of the area is of recent geological formation and is therefore volcanic. "Java has more than a hundred volcanoes, many of which are active, while Sumatra and the other islands of the outer arc are only slightly less volcanic."(3)

The Philippine Islands number over 7,000, although only 1,095 of them are inhabited. "If the 7,107 islands of the Philippines were in the New World, they would extend from the latitude of Cuba to the Guianas in South America... Two-thirds of the area is in Luzon and Mindanao, which cover 40,814 and 36,906 square miles respectively."(4) More than fifty percent of the land in the

(1) Cressey, George B. Op.cit., pp. 494-5.

(2) Hanna, William A. Indonesia: Guided Republic. Headline Series, Foreign Policy Association - World Affairs Center. Number 150, November-December 1961. pp. 3-4.

(3) Cressey, George B. Op.cit., p. 528.

(4) Ibid., p. 541.

Philippines is covered by forest. Twenty percent of the land is farmed, although fifty-four percent is arable. The climate is tropical, the rainy season occurring from June to October and the dry one from November to March. This part of Asia is subject to destructive typhoons, but they are concentrated in the central and northern islands rather than in Mindanao. Rice accounts for nearly half the crop production; it is followed by corn and cocoanut palms. "Too much of the agriculture is designed for export markets...As a result, the islands do not feed themselves, and nearly a fifth of their imports are foodstuffs."(1)

Four large islands make up Japan, namely, Honshu, Shikoku, Ryushu and Hokkaido. "(Japan) is a country of pastel-print beauty, where mountains are formed in the perfect symmetry of Mount Fuji, the sea gurgles in every cranny of the islands, the fragile beauties of blossoms and snowflakes and flickering dragon flies are savored by the humblest peasant. It is also a country of extravagantly tortured mountain landscapes, many of them scarred by volcanoes that are periodically still active. Made up of geologically young land forms, Japan's coastline ranges from gentle lowlands with fine harbors to precipitous cliffs against which the sea beats mercilessly. Beneath the beauty and the scars runs the constant threat of earthquakes; there are more than 7,000 recorded tremors a year."(2)

The islands which compose Japan stretch for a thousand miles and so there is a diversity of climate. The southern area has warm summers and mild winters, while the north has cool summers and colder winters. Summer rainfall decreases from south to north. Typhoons, which occur in late summer and early fall, often do damage, especially in the south. Only fifteen percent of Japan's land is arable; twenty percent of its imports are foodstuffs. In order to balance its economy, Japan has turned with great vigor to industry, and since World War II has made a remarkable recovery.

Okinawa (Ryukyu Islands), under U.S. administration since World War II, is a part of a chain of over 60 islands and islets, with a total land area of 848 square miles and a total population of 882,000. Over half of the land area is accounted for by Okinawa, the most important island. The major islands are quite hilly or mountainous, with fertile valleys. One of their dominant features is the crowding of many people on the small area of cultivated land. Okinawa alone is inhabited by 758,100 people (exclusive of U.S. personnel), making for a population density of over 1,500 per square mile.(3)

The Ryukyuans are an Asian people similar in physical appearance to the Japanese and Chinese, and their way of life has been influenced by customs and ideas from both these nations. Their traditional religion is an indigenous animistic cult which has been influenced in varying degrees by Confucianism, Shintoism, Buddhism, and Christianity.

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(1) Cressey, George B. Op.cit., p. 543.

(2) The Editors of Life and Rand McNally. Pictorial Atlas of the World. New York: Time, Inc. 1961. p. 355.

(3) Statistics taken from World Almanac 1962 and Elizabeth M.Thompson,Op.cit. Other Lands,Other Peoples, "Asia" section, p. 37.

Robert Trumbull, writing for the New York Times[1] says that the "yearning that disturbs the Okinawans is the yearning for land...The island contains only 80,000 acres of tillable land - one acre for every seven and a half persons." He continues, "Okinawans have a fanatical attachment to their land that is akin to religion. Land has been the core of their social organization as well as their livelihood, and, before the Americans came, transfer of land from one owner to another was rare...The standard of living here, while lower than the average in Japan, is far better than in most villages in India and a dozen other countries of the Far East."

Korea is a mountainous peninsula, 150 miles wide and 600 miles long. The mountains are not high, but they are extensive, and in many places rugged. The plains are vital to the development of the country and it is on them that twenty percent of the total population are living. The climate is temperate, with dry cold winters, warm summers and moderate rainfall.

China (Mainland). China, with about one-fourth of the world's population, dominates the big land mass of Eastern Asia, an area about one-third larger than continental United States. The four million square miles of territory now controlled by the Chinese Communist regime consists of the provinces south of the Great Wall, generally known as "China Proper", plus Manchuria, Sinkiang, Chinghai (Kokonor), Inner Mongolia, and Tibet. Outer Mongolia, once considered part of "Greater China", declared its independence in 1945.

The country is of rolling topography, rising to high elevation in the North in the Khinghan Mountains, separating Manchuria and Mongolia; the Tarabagata Mountains in Sinkiang; the Himalayas and Kunlun Mountains in the southwest in Tibet. China proper occupies the fertile southeastern part of the country, an area nearly twice the size of the United States east of the Mississippi. This is one of the best watered countries of the world. Three great rivers, the Yantze, the Hwang-ho (Yellow), and the Si-Kiang, drain four-fifths of the country.

Most of mainland China lies within the north temperate zone. Yet there are great variations of climate; heavy rainfall in some parts of south China (more than 80 inches a year), while the north gets only 10 to 35 inches. A wide variety of crops are grown, and many of the fruits commonly known in America originally came from China. In earlier years, China was chiefly agricultural. In mineral resources, China is one of the foremost coal countries in the world; other minerals are iron ore, tin, antimony, petroleum, tungsten, molybdenum, and salt.

Taiwan. This island, known also as Formosa, lies 80 miles off the southern coast of the Chinese mainland. Shaped like a tobacco leaf, Taiwan is about 240 miles long and 60 to 90 miles wide, with a total area of 13,886 square miles. The eastern half is ridged by steep mountains; the western side is flat, fertile, and well-cultivated -- yielding two or three rice crops each year.

Taiwan is essentially an agricultural country with the greater part of the population dependent on farming. It is self-sufficient in most basic food-

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(1) Trumbull, Robert. "Okinawa: 'Sometimes Painful' Lesson for Us", article in The New York Times Magazine, April 7, 1957, p. 29.

stuffs and produces surpluses of a number of others, notably rice and sugar. Farms are generally small, averaging three acres. Cattle and water buffalo are the chief livestock. As a result of the government's recent land reform program, nearly all local farmers now own their land; many of them also belong to a Farmers' Association which provides cooperative benefits.

Food processing is the island's major industry. However, textile industry is expanding and its industrial potential has increased considerably since 1955, due to the government-sponsored development program, the island's network of modern roads, increased electric power system, and the enlarged chemical fertilizer industry.

Taiwan's population of approximately 11 million people are all Chinese except for about 100,000 Malay-speaking aborigines who live chiefly in the mountain areas. Roughly 10 million of the Chinese inhabitants are native Taiwanese descended from South China immigrants who settled the island from the 17th to the late 19th century. The remainder are mainlanders from all parts of China who came to Taiwan as refugees in 1949, 1950, and subsequent years.

The People.(1)

The geographic position of Southeast Asia (the largest area in this study) between the two great civilizations of India and China, and as crossroads in world trade, is reflected in the people, their culture, and their way of life. Where the people of Southeast Asia originally came from is a matter of some disagreement. It is fairly certain that they came down from the North. However, after arriving they mixed with other groups to create a type that is easily distinguishable - except in the mountainous north and in Viet-Nam - from either the Chinese or the Indians.

The peoples in Southeast Asia are disparate in racial background, religion, language, and customs. They have known about every form of rule which may be exercised by a tribal chieftain, a rajah, a sultan, a king, a dictator, or a democratically elected parliament. Yet, despite diversity of origins, languages, and religions, the peoples have had certain experiences in common. Throughout the area the standard of living is measured within a rice economy. Village societies have persisted for centuries. Average life expectancy is low and infant mortality is high, with malaria, dysentery, and tuberculosis taking a heavy toll. The populations have been largely self-sufficient, with little need of trade or other dealings with one another. Every country within the area has a past history of tribal or interracial warfare and periodic invasions. With the exception of Thailand, all Southeast Asian countries have been developed by foreigners and in the colonial pattern. Until World War II Southeast Asian trade was overwhelmingly with the nations of Western Europe and the United States. Under the system of exchanging raw materials for processed goods and manufactured products, Southeast Asia remained industrially backward and underdeveloped.

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(1) For basic information regarding the people of all Asian countries in this study, see Elizabeth M.Thompson's country-by-country fact book titled Other Lands Other Peoples, published by the Committee on International Relations, National Education Association of the United States. Second Edition 1962.

Racial or Ethnic Groups

Although there are scores of racial or ethnic groups in Southeast Asia, most of them belong either to the Malay or Tibetan branches of the human family. Malay is a confusing term because it is used to denote both members of the Malay race and citizens or residents of the Federation of Malaya. However, there is a wide spread tendency now to use the term Malayan when speaking of the citizens of the Federation, and Malay when speaking of the race. Malays make up about seventy percent of the population of Southeast Asia. In addition to the Malays in Malaya, most Indonesians and many Filipinos are of the Malay race.

"The bulk of the inhabitants of South Asia are of the same racial stock as the Caucasoid inhabitants of Europe and Southwest Asia...The bulk of the population belongs to the Mediterranean branch of the Caucasoids, the chief difference between this type in India and elsewhere being in the darker pigmentation."(1)

Caucasoid, Mongoloid and Negroid are the principal racial strains, but the intermixture has been great in many areas. "On the mainland of southeastern Asia, it is difficult to recognize and label more than a small residual effect of the earliest Negroid or Caucasoid peoples, with a little more Negrito influence, but unquestionably all three elements are present in the racial understructure of the region...Out of the Mongoloid race incubator has come a succession of peoples as variable as those from the Negroid or Caucasoid hearths. The earliest waves probably spread in all directions, but found the easiest zone of movement in eastern mainland Asia. Into the Philippines, southeastern Asia, and the western Indies moved the early proto-Mongoloid groups to share the region with representatives of the early Negroid and Caucasoid races."(2) In Thailand and Burma the Mongoloid race predominates, and on the coastal fringe of Southeast Asia, blends of Negroid, Caucasoid and Malay peoples have merged with Mongoloids to form new sub-types.

The racial picture in Asia can be summarized as follows, "No political state in the Orient is populated by a single race, every country containing a multiple mixture. Caucasoid stocks entered directly into this mixture in every country, early or late. Negroid stocks have been direct contributors everywhere except in Tibet, north China, Manchuria, Korea, and Japan. Mongoloid stocks have contributed directly to every region except New Guinea and India south of the Himalayan mountain wall and a portion of northwest India."(3) (See TABLE No. 3 - BASIC DATA - LANGUAGES: RELIGIONS: RACES).

Languages

In determining cultural grouping, language seems to be more important than race, although the differences make up a more complex picture. For example, in India (before independence) there were 179 official languages and 544 dialects, although more than 100 of the languages are quite insignificant.

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(1) Ginsburg, Norton (Ed.) The Pattern of Asia. Op.cit., p. 468.
(2) Spencer, J.E. Asia East by South. A cultural geography. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1954 p. 116.
(3) Ibid., pp. 118-119.

For education, local government, and literature only about fifteen regional languages are important, and for national affairs in India and Pakistan, there are only four important languages: English, Hindi, Urdu, and Bengali.(1)

"In India and Pakistan the Indo-Aryan speech family is the most important, both numerically and culturally. Languages belonging to this family are the mother tongues of at least 310 million people - more than seventy percent of South Asia's population."(2) Hindi (or a modified form of Hindustani) has come to be the common language for trade and travel. Unrelated to the Indo-European languages are the Dravidian tongues spoken by about 87 million people in South India. Most areas in South Asia are multilingual.

In Ceylon, the Sinhalese majority and the Tamil minority have retained their separate languages, but English has been for many years the preferred language in government, commerce, and higher education. "In 1956, heightened Sinhalese nationalism led to the passage of a vaguely-worded law proclaiming the Sinhala language 'the one official language of Ceylon', and this law has created serious domestic controversy threatening the unity of the country."(3)

Malay is spoken in Malaya, and in Indonesia a variation of Malay called Bahasa Indonesia. A simple version of the Malay language is a common market tongue for all of Indonesia and the southern islands of the Philippines; a more sophisticated version is the national language of Indonesia and Malaya.

English is the only language common to all India, or to all Pakistan, and is still the language of the central legislative bodies of both countries. "The passing of the British Empire from the subcontinent has not been followed by a quick abandonment of the English language because of its practical advantages in national administration of government, post and rail services, and businesss affairs. English continues to be used widely in higher education, but it must always remain a speech of the intelligentsia. It seems likely to recede to the status of the major foreign language, being gradually replaced by the languages whose roots are closer to those of the speech of the masses."(4)

In both India and Pakistan it was a desire from the time of independence to replace English as the official language with some indigenous tongue. But it is the language of administration and all administrative procedures have been developed in it. More important, it is the language of the courts, decisions are written in it; all the legal thinking and the entire context of legal terminology are in the English language. Still wider in its implications is the fact that all but a very limited amount of higher education has been through the medium of English. Textbooks, lecturing, research, thinking in modern mathematical, physical, biological, and social sciences, and in a good many of the humanistic fields as well, has been, and still continues to be, in English. So the need for English was apparent in both countries when they obtained independence.

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(1) Ginsburg, Norton (Ed.). The Pattern of Asia. Op.cit., p. 472
(2) Ibid., pp. 472-3.
(3) Thompson, Elizabeth M. Op.cit., "Asia" section, p. 10.
(4) Ginsburg,Norton (Ed.). The Pattern of Asia. Op.cit., p. 474

Importance of the Area

Increasingly, political and geographic importance is being attached "to the peripheral crescent of South and East Asia which must support more people than all of the rest of the world put together. The continued centrifugal expansion of world power from established centers in the Western World more and more embroils Asiatic regions in international politics...It is essential to recognize South Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Far East as the critical world regional blocs that they are and to know them well in terms of geographic nomenclature."(1)

It is also essential to stress the great diversity that exists between countries and regions of Asia. No two countries of Asia are fully alike,and therefore the problems also vary greatly from one to the other. Some countries are rich in natural resources; others are so poor that economic self-efficiency can hardly be envisioned. In India, China, and parts of Indonesia vast exploding populations are already straining meager resources to the limit, and no real solution is in sight. In other countries such as Japan, rapid population expansion is just now being brought under control. Still other countries, such as Malaya, are underpopulated, but there population is growing rapidly, even by Asian standards.

In terms of economic and social development, the area includes one highly organized society - Japan. Asia also includes two states - China and India - which are massive in terms of area, population and resources, and have in the past decade commenced organized efforts toward economic development. However, these efforts are at a very early stage and are of a vastly different nature. One is an experiment in totally planned development, while the other is an attempt to effect development and social change within the framework of constitutional government. Most of the remaining countries in the area have only begun efforts to achieve economic progress or to seek solutions for the problems inherent in the creation of a modern society. Southeast Asia, for example, is important because of its geographical location and its enormous wealth in natural resources. Today all shipping between Europe and the Orient via the Indian Ocean must pass through either the Strait of Malacca or one of the other straits of the Malay barrier. Control of these straits gives dominance over a sea route comparable in importance to the Panama Canal route. Furthermore, all intercontinental airways in the Far East traverse the Southeast Asian area. Bangkok in Thailand and Rangoon in Burma are major air transport centers, only a few flying hours from Saigon, Hong Kong, Darwin, and Calcutta.

In Asia are four of the world's major religions and many lesser ones. Similarly, there are great diversities in social organization, in levels of education and literacy, in political systems and practices, in races, languages, and in climate.

Common Factors in Asia Today

In spite of the vast and important differences, there are some common

(1) Pearcy, G.Etzel. Geographic Regions of Asia: South and East. Op.cit., p. 10.

factors in all of Asia.[1] These are related to the whole economic and social structure of the area.

1. The first factor, which is common to the great majority of people throughout Asia, is poverty combined with lack of opportunity. Living standards vary from a per capita income of well under $100 per year in many of the countries of South and Southeast Asia, up to $353 per year in Japan, and even higher in special cases like Brunei. However, even in those countries which have relatively high living standards for Asia, poverty is the lot of the average peasant and urban worker. Furthermore, to date, there has been little opportunity or hope for Asian peoples to improve their lot. This poverty and lack of opportunity are central facts of life which condition the outlook of most Asians, and affect the policies of their governments.

2. Of even greater importance is the fact that recently more and more of these poverty-stricken peoples are beginning to see that something can be done about their current condition. Broader communication with the outside world has brought the realization that people in the Western World have greater wealth, individual opportunities, and social mobility, and that they have accomplished these improvements in their way of life largely through their own efforts. Asians, particularly in urban centers, are becoming aware of this. As they do, they expect their national leaders to provide the economic and social progress which they know that others have been able to realize.

3. A very rapid change is taking place in social structures and customs. This change will accelerate over the next decade, and will bring with it some of the most complex and vexing problems. For example, the limited steps that have been taken toward industrialization have resulted in expansion of a wage-earning class in most countries and the growth of a market economy. Industrialization coupled with the expansion of government functions is also resulting in the rapid growth of urban centers.

The institution of land reform measures by many of the new national governments is changing the character of land ownership. New educational and business opportunities for women are being opened,which in turn are altering the role of women in the community. The introduction of modern medicines and health practices has resulted in the drastic lowering of death rates while high birth rates continue. Thus, in a number of areas, population is increasing beyond the economy's capability to provide the barest essentials for subsistence, let alone support increased living standards. The introduction of mass education is resulting in the creation of an educated group, which in many cases is far larger than the positions available for this group to fill.

4. Asia, like other late developing areas of the world, is economically dependent to a marked degree on the outside world. For Japan, trade is a vital economic lifeline, without which her continued existence as a nation would be impossible. Foreign aid, whether from the West or from the Communist

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(1) As reported in United States Foreign Policy - Compilation of Studies. Prepared under the direction of Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate. 87th Congress, 1st Session. Document No. 24. March 15, 1961. pp. 409-412.

bloc, is an important and often essential element to almost all of the states of Asia. Such aid is a source of foreign exchange and technical skills; it also helps to meet government budget deficits while minimizing the dangers of inflation. The economies of South and Southeast Asia are particularly dependent on, and sensitive to world demand for such key commodities as tin, rubber, rice, and copra. Fluctuations in world prices for these basic commodities can wreak havoc with weak economies or with the best prepared development plans.

II. CULTURE

The whole of Asia has been subjected to a wide variety of external pressures that it is difficult to define traditional culture patterns. Little study has been done on the historical sociology of the region; therefore, most writers deal only in generalizations when attempting to trace patterns or to relate them to present-day political and social structures.

Culture Patterns

"Most of the pressures that moulded the societies of Southeast Asia were pre-colonial, coming from Muslim, Hindu, Buddhist, and Chinese sources. Except in British Burma (and even there the impact was comparatively light), the European rulers - the Dutch in Indonesia and the French in Indo-China - did not attempt to destroy existing structures of power in favor of Westernized systems, but used them as instruments of indirect rule. In consequence, the changes brought about by the European connection were of a different order from those in India and Pakistan."(1)

Cultural traditions in Japan bear the imprint of early cultural borrowings from China, often by way of Korea. The Buddhist religion, the Confucian pattern of family relationships, and the characters for writing the spoken Japanese language all were acquired from China. These borrowed elements, however, were absorbed into a distinctive Japanese civilization long before Japan met the modern west. Buddhism has exerted profound influence on the fine arts, social institutions, and thought.

Traditional societies were divided into two classes, the aristocracy and the peasants, tied only by a common religion. "One of the distinctive features of most of these societies was the emphasis on sexual equality; this survived, and therefore influenced the social practices associated with Hinduism and Islam when they were adopted as state religions. Another distinctive feature was the existence of elaborate legal codes governing all forms of social communication, conventional in a Western sense rather than imposed by religious sanctions."(2)

"The division between ruler and ruled was precise," writes Dr.Edwardes. "The primary basis of existence was agricultural, and peasant communities tended to center upon the village and to develop special types of relationships, which were essentially technical and cooperative and were based upon the availability of special skills and the necessity for communal activity in rice production and fishing."(3)

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(1) Edwardes, Michael. Asia in the Balance. Baltimore: Penguin Books S 204, 1962. p. 48.
(2) Ibid., pp. 48-49.
(3) Ibid., p. 49.
(4) For further information regarding the cultural complex of Asia, see article "Cultural Continuities and Discontinuities in Southeast Asia" by Lauriston Sharp. The Journal of Asian Studies, published by the Association for Asian Studies, Inc. Vol. XXII, No.1, November 1962.

Can Ancient Values Survive a Machine Age?

One writer comments that "perhaps the most fundamental (problem) of all is the different philosophy of life obtaining in many of today's under-developed countries. The success of Western technological civilization has depended upon the willingness of large numbers of men persistently to devote their energies to the acquiring of material goods and social prestige symbols. The habits of industry, thrift, accumulation of capital and shrewdness in the farsighted employment of it opened the doors of society, while earning the plaudits of moralists."(1)

"In the attempt to move from an earlier, rural culture into the mobile, machine-conscious, urbanized, technological society, the 'less developed' countries may risk losing precious social values consecrated by tradition and also art forms which satisfy aesthetically as manufactured goods can never do. Only economic development and industrialization can reduce the material sufferings and insecurity of the less privileged peoples, but respect for these social and artistic values may still be a guiding principle both of those who are seeking to diversify their economies and of the experts from industrialized countries who go among them, sometimes without fully realizing what treasures an 'underdeveloped' culture may conceal."(2)

A UNESCO study(3) on traditional cultures in southeast Asia observes that the impact of technology on contemporary Asian societies will be different from that which took place in the West. "Real urbanization in the Western sense is unlikely to occur on the same scale...the task of Asian government is not one of banning urban hypertrophy, but of planning in such a way that occupation or work is brought to the rural family, rather than oblige the adult worker to rush to the most accessible large industrial center. Modern modes of production and contemporary technology do not necessitate the reckless and dehumanizing disruption of traditional life which went with, and was thought inseparable from economic progress...The preservation of traditional culture is ...the conservation of time-tested human values and social ways by concerted social and political action...It is not science or technology that alters the conditions of life and changes them radically, but the commercial, economic and political decisions that are taken deliberately at one place, or without concert in many places as to how it should be employed."

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(1) The UNESCO Courier. November 1962. p. 32. (Part 3 of a series of articles taken from a new study produced by the United Nations and to be published under the title "Aspects of Underdevelopment: The Background to Freedom from Hunger."

(2) Ibid., p. 32.

(3) International Seminar on Traditional Cultures in South-East Asia. Orient Longman's, for the Institute of Traditional Cultures, Madras, under the auspices of UNESCO, 1960. p. 179.

TABLE No. 1

AREA, POPULATION AND DENSITY (1962)

COUNTRY	AREA[1] (Sq.Mi.)	POPULATION[2] (000)	DENSITY[3] (People per Square Mi.)
SOUTH ASIA			
BHUTAN	18,000	640	34[4]
CEYLON	25,332	10,167	379
INDIA	1,221,880	441,631	345
NEPAL	54,000	9,388	170
PAKISTAN	364,737	96,558	257
SOUTHEAST ASIA			
BRITISH BORNEO			
Brunei	)	84	(
North Borneo	) 81,726	460	(15[4]
Sarawak	)	770	(
BURMA	261,789	22,342	79
CAMBODIA	88,780	4,952	72
INDONESIA	735,865	96,750	161
LAOS	91,000	1,850	19
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	50,690	7,137	132
PHILIPPINES	115,758	29,698	237
SINGAPORE	217	1,713	6,750[4]
THAILAND	200,148	27,181	129
VIET-NAM, North	127,000	16,400	253
REPUBLIC OF VIET-NAM(South)	65,000	14,520	209
FAR EAST			
CHINA (Mainland)	3,769,000	646,530	178
HONG KONG	391	3,178	7,037[4]
JAPAN	142,688	94,870	655
KOREA (North	47,858	9,383	169
REPUBLIC OF KOREA(South)	34,427	26,354	676
RYUKYU ISLANDS	848	898	614.5
(OKINAWA)	454	758(1)	
TAIWAN	13,886	11,302	764
OCEANIA			
AUSTRALIA	2,974,581	10,604	3.5
NEW ZEALAND	103,736	2,485	23
NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA	151,000	750	5.2[4]

(1) World Almanac and Book of Facts 1962. Published by the New York World-Telegram and Sun.

(2) United Nations - Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs. Population and Vital Statistics Report - Data available as of October 1, 1962. Statistical Papers, Series A, Vol. XIV, No. 4. ST/STAT/SER.A/63.

(3) A World of Facts. Civic Education Service, 1961.

(4) Atlas of the World. Princeton, New Jersey: D.Van Nostrand Company,Inc., 1961.

TABLE No. 2

BASIC DATA - TOPOGRAPHY: PRINCIPAL PHYSICAL FEATURES: CLIMATE

Country	Topography	Principal Physical Features	Climate
SOUTH ASIA			
AFGHANISTAN	Largely mountainous; plain and desert region in S.	Hindu Kush Mts.; Kyuber Pass; Helmand and Hari Rivers.	Dry; great extremes in temperature during the year.
BHUTAN	N: rugged mountains; S: hills; C: elevated valleys between mts.	Himalaya Mts. and foothills.	Hot in south, rainy; cold in north.
CEYLON	Hills and mountains in south, surrounded by plains.	Mt. Pidurutalagala; Mahavelaganga River.	Hot, humid; heavy rainfall.
INDIA	N and C: mountainous, with great river plains between; S: plateau and coastal plain.	Himalaya and Vindhya Mts.; Ganges and Brahmaputra Rivers; Indian Desert; the Deccan.	Hot,humid on plains; cooler in mts. and plateau; heavy monsoon rains, June-September.
NEPAL	Very mountainous; strip of plain and forest land in south.	Himalaya Mts.; Mt.Everest, Mt. Dhaulagiri.	Hot,humid in plain region; cold in mts.
PAKISTAN	E. Pakistan: plains and shallow valleys. W.Pakistan: W & N: rugged mountains; E: river valley.	Himalaya Mts.; Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra Rivers.	Hot summers, cool winters. E.Pakistan: wet. W.Pakistan: dry.
SOUTHEAST ASIA			
BURMA	N and W: mountains, large central river plain; E: plateau.	Himalaya Mts.; Irrawaddy and Salween Rivers.	Tropical; rainy, May - October.
INDONESIA	Rugged, mountainous; of volcanic origin; drained by many rivers.	Barisan,Mueller,Molengraaf Mts.; Mt. Kerintji, Mt.Rendjani.	Hot,humid; tempered by elevation; heavy rainfall.

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 2 (Cont'd)

BASIC DATA - TOPOGRAPHY: PRINCIPAL PHYSICAL FEATURES: CLIMATE

Country	Topography	Principal Physical Features	Climate
SOUTHEAST ASIA(Cont'd)			
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	Series of ranges, interspersed with fertile valleys and low hills.	Mt. Korbu; Pahang and Rompin Rivers.	Hot,humid; rainy all year; little variation.
PHILIPPINES	Volcanic in origin; mountainous, well-wooded, with fertile plains.	Sierra Madre Mts.; Mt. Apo, Mt. Sicapoo; Cagayan River; numerous bays.	Tropical, with wet and dry seasons.
THAILAND	Highlands and mountains extending along w. border; C and E: vast plains.	Bilauktaung Mts.; Korat Plateau; Wang and Chao Phraya Rivers.	Hot,humid; dry in eastern part.
VIET-NAM	N & C: wooded mountains & plateaus E & S: fertile plains; more than half of country mountainous.	Mekong River flows southward through Cambodia. In north the Red and Black Rivers drain the state of Tonkin; the Hou River flows through Laos.	Hot rainy summers. Dry winters; interior cool.
Other Areas			
BRITISH BORNEO	Mountainous; narrow coastal lowland in central Sarawak.	Boven Kapoeas and Iran Mts.; Mt. Kinabalu; Rajang River.	Hot and humid; heavy rainfall.
CAMBODIA	Large plain, broken by ranges of low,densely forested mountains.	Flat lands in center form a basin for Mekong River and large lake (Tonle Sap).	High humidity - monsoon type climate. Dry season: Dec.-May. Rainy season: June-Nov. Temperature: 68° - 97°.
LAOS	Much rugged, mountainous terrain and many thick forests.	Mekong River.	Tropical,high humidity year around. May-Sept.: heavy rainfall. Nov. - March: drought.

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 2 (Cont'd)

BASIC DATA - TOPOGRAPHY: PRINCIPAL PHYSICAL FEATURES: CLIMATE

Country	Topography	Principal Physical Features	Climate
SOUTHEAST ASIA(Cont'd)			
Other Areas(Cont'd)			
PORTUGUESE TIMOR	Rugged with steep coasts; lined with coral reefs.	No prominent ones.	Hot and humid.
FAR EAST			
CHINA (Mainland)	Generally mountainous with great river valleys; rolling plains in NE.	Greater Khingan & Kunlun Mts.; Tibetan Plateau; Hwang Ho and Yangtze Rivers.	Continental, with hot summers and cold winters; heavy rainfall in Yangtze Valley.
JAPAN	Mountainous, rugged; little plain region except along coast.	Mt. Fujiyama, Mt. Norikura, and other peaks; numerous lakes and rivers.	Subtropical in S, cold winters in N; abundant rainfall.
KOREA	Mountainous with narrow valleys; scattered plains and hills in W.	Mt. Chiri-San; numerous rivers.	Cold winters and hot summers; light to moderate rainfall.
MONGOLIA	Elevated plateau, interrupted by mts.; desert in SE.	Plateau of Mongolia; Altai Mts.; Gobi Desert.	Continental, with temperature extremes; light rainfall.
RYUKYU IS.	Of volcanic origin; mountainous with some open plains; fringed by coral reefs.	Mt. Nakanoshima,Mt.Yuwan-dake.	Warm and very rainy.
TAIWAN	A great chain of tree-covered mountains runs almost the entire length of the island, on the eastern half. Western side is flat,fertile and well cultivated.	Mt. Morrison and Mt.Sylvia are two highest peaks.	Sub-tropical; long,hot summers, short rainy winters. Lies in typhoon belt - subject to violent rain,floods,winds.

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 2 (Cont'd)

BASIC DATA - TOPOGRAPHY: PRINCIPAL PHYSICAL FEATURES: CLIMATE

Country	Topography	Principal Physical Features	Climate
OCEANIA			
AUSTRALIA	Eastern border mountains. Vast central plain. Flat semidesert western plateau. NE coast - extended reef. S coast steep; W coast flat and sandy.	Tropic of Capricorn bisects Australia. The Great Dividing Range along E coast has Mt.Kosciusko. Main river-Murray Riv. W. plateau rises up to 2,000 ft.	Over 70% of Australia has desert climate. In C, temperatures vary. N coast: west monsoon prevails in summer. In winter Australia controlled by SE monsoon. S coast: rain in winter, dry in summer. NW: little rain.
NEW ZEALAND	North Island - irregular mountainous. Fertile coastal plains. South Island - much wilder with numerous lakes and fiords. W & S: sandy coastal plains.	North Island has tallest volcano, Mt. Ruapehu and hot springs. South Island: Southern Alps and Tasman Glacier. Mt.Cook, Mt. Aspiring, Mt. Tapuaenku.	Temperate but with marked regional contrasts -- warmest in north and colder in south. Temperatures on North Is. range from 36° to 85°. About 10° lower on South Island.
NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA	Forested mountains, bordered by broad plains; drained by many rivers.	Nassau Bismarck & Owen Stanley Ranges; Mamberamo & Fly Rivers.	High temperatures; humid; heavy rainfall.

Note: N - North; C - Central; S - South; E - East; W - West.

Sources: Thiessen, John Caldwell. A Survey of World Missions. Inter-Varsity Press, Chicago, 1955.

World Almanac and Book of Facts 1962. Published by the New York World-Telegram & The Sun.

Atlas of the World. Princeton, New Jersey: D.Van Nostrand Company, Inc. 1961.

Thompson, Elizabeth M. Other Lands, Other Peoples. A Country-by-Country Fact Book. Committee on International Relations, National Education Association of the United States, Second Revised Edition, Fall 1962.

TABLE No. 3

BASIC DATA - LANGUAGES: RELIGIONS: RACES

COUNTRY	LANGUAGE	RELIGION	RACE
SOUTH ASIA			
AFGHANISTAN	Principal languages are Pushtu, spoken by the Pathans, and Farsi (Persian), the language of the court and educated.	Nearly all the people are Muslims, with the Sunni sect of Islam predominating	Variety of ethnic types: Pathans (6,000,000); Tajiks; Uzbeks; Turkomans and Hazaras.
BHUTAN	Sino-Tibetan	The majority are Mahayana Buddhists.	Tibeto-Mongolian stock.
CEYLON	Sinhalese Tamil English is the preferred language in government, commerce and higher education.	The majority of the population (70%) belong to the Hinayana Buddhist faith. The Tamils (about 22%) are Hindus. Christians (mostly Roman Catholics)- 700,000.	Sinhalese - 70% Ceylon and Indian Tamils - 22% Small minority groups - Muslim Moors, Christian Eurasians.
INDIA	Hindi, English There are 14 main languages, 12 originating from Sanskrit, with several hundred different variations in dialect. The state language is Hindi, spoken by nearly 50%, with Urdu, the principal Muslim language, spoken by 10%. Hindi is to be the official language by 1965 with English the second language in Indian colleges.	More than 85% of the population follow the Vedas(Hindu) religion, but the Constitution guarantees freedom of worship. The Muslims are the largest minority - 40,000,000 There are 8,500,000 Christians, 5,000,000 of them Syrian Roman Catholics. Sikhs -over 6,000,000. Buddhists -3,000,000. Parsis - 100,000 (chiefly around Bombay). Jews - 30,000.	Diverse racial groups. Skin tones range from light to dark; however, nearly all Indians are considered Caucasian.

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 3 (Cont'd)

BASIC DATA - LANGUAGES: RELIGIONS: RACES

COUNTRY	LANGUAGE	RELIGION	RACE
SOUTH ASIA(cont'd)			
NEPAL	Nepali is the national language. It is an Indo-Aryan language derived from Sanskrit. Many tribal tongues are used: Parbatia, Tibetan, Gubhajius.	Hinduism is the main religion. Buddhism prevails in the northern districts.	Mongoloid stock (with admixture of Hindu blood from India). Indo-Aryan types.
PAKISTAN	Urdu, in West Pakistan, and Bengali, in East Pakistan, are national languages. English is the official language used in government and business and for higher education.	Muslim - 86% Hindus - 10,000,000 (almost entirely in the East). Christians - 500,000 Small groups of Parsis and Buddhists.	Variegated people with complexions ranging from light to dark.
SOUTHEAST ASIA			
BURMA	Burmese (spoken by nearly 3/4 of the population) is the official language. English is used as second language and studied in secondary schools.	Nearly all Burmese are Buddhists - 90%. Buddhism was adopted as the state religion August 18, 1961.	Mongoloid stock -allied to Thais, Tibetans, Malays, Chinese and others of eastern Asia. In addition - over 1 million Chinese, Pakistani, and Indian inhabitants.
INDONESIA	Bahasa Indonesia is the official language, derived from Malay. English is used as a second language by the educated minority. Dutch.	About 90% are Muslim. Most of the inhabitants of Bali are Hindu. About 1 million Buddhists. Main strength of Christians is in outer territories and in Central and East Java.	Predominantly brown-skinned Malay stock. Many races: Bataks (Sumatra); Javanese (Java); Balinese (Bali); Sasaks (Lombok)

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 3 (Cont'd)

BASIC DATA - LANGUAGES: RELIGIONS: RACES

COUNTRY	LANGUAGE	RELIGION	RACE
SOUTHEAST ASIA(cont'd)			
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	Malay (of Malayo-Polynesian group) is the official national language. Chinese. English is the common language of the educated of all races.	Almost entirely Muslim. Islam is the official state religion. Others- Hindu, Buddhism.	The Malayans are a Southern Mongoloid people. Its mixed population is approximately divided: Malays -50%; Chinese- 37½%; Indians - 11%; Pakistani and others.
THE PHILIPPINES	"Home"languages and dialects belong to Malayo-Polynesian group. Tagalog, a Malayan dialect, is considered national language. English used in schools,commerce,and most newspapers; understood by one-half of the people.	About 80% are Roman Catholics. Philippine Independent Church- 1,500,000; Protestants- over a million. Muslims - 791,817. Buddhists - 42,751.	Predominantly of Malay stock. Chinese minority about 200,000.
SINGAPORE	Chinese - 80% Malay. Hindi.	Each cultural group follows its own religion and preserves its own customs.	Chinese - 80%. The rest are Malays and Indian.
THAILAND	Thai (Indo-Chinese monosyllabic branch). Chinese.	Hinayana Buddhism is the state religion.	Siamese. Minority groups include 3 million Chinese and several thousand Malays.
VIET-NAM (North)	Annamese,Chinese, French.	Buddhist. Christian.	

(Continued)-

TABLE No. 3 (Cont'd)

BASIC DATA - LANGUAGES: RELIGIONS: RACES

COUNTRY	LANGUAGE	RELIGION	RACE
SOUTHEAST ASIA(Cont'd)			
REPUBLIC OF VIET-NAM (South)	Annamese. French is widely spoken in government,commercial and intellectual circles. There is currently much interest in learning English.	Blend of Mahayana Buddhism and ancestor worship, with strong Taoist and Confucianist influences. Roman Catholic minority - about 2,000,000, including many who have fled from Communist North.	Vietnamese. Ethnic minorities include about half a million Chinese and a substantial number of Cambodians.
Other Areas			
BRITISH BORNEO (Sarawak & N.Borneo)	Malay-Polynesian.	Primitive tribal religions and Islam claim the majority of the population.	Malayans,Chinese, Dyaks.
CAMBODIA	The national language is Cambodian, or Khmer. French is widely spoken.	Buddhism is the state religion. (Hinayana)	Khmers (Cambodians)- 85%. Chinese-215,000 Vietnamese - 250,000
LAOS	Lao is the official language. French is spoken by educated minority and used in government and commerce.	Hinayana Buddhism is the state religion.	Lao, of Thai-Indonesian and Chinese origin. Hill tribes such as Meo and Kha make up balance of population.
PORTUGUESE TIMOR	Malay-Polynesian. Portuguese.	Islam is the chief religion. Strong Roman Catholic influence since Portuguese settlement.	Malay and Papuan stock. Some Chinese and Portuguese.

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 3 (Cont'd)

BASIC DATA - LANGUAGES: RELIGIONS: RACES

COUNTRY	LANGUAGE	RELIGION	RACE
FAR EAST			
CHINA (Mainland)	Chinese. There is only one written Chinese language; however, there is a great variety of spoken Chinese because of dialects. Most dialects may be considered variations of "Mandarin Chinese."	Buddhism and Taoism are the major religions. Confucianism, a system of ethics rather than religion, is part of the thinking of all Chinese people. Christians - a minority. Muslim minority 10,000,000(1953 census).	Chinese race known as "Sons of Han." Small ethnic minorities in southern and western parts of China proper.
JAPAN	Japanese. Ainu.	Buddhism(12 sects). Shintoism (13 sects). Christianity- over half a million.	Tungid-Mongolian stock showing Malay influence.
KOREA (North)	Korean. Chinese.	Buddhism,Confucianism, Chondokyo,Christian.	
REPUBLIC OF KOREA(South)	Korean(24 letter alphabet,a hybrid comprised of ancient Chinese with Tibetan consonants of Sanskrit derivation). Chinese.	Traditional religions are Buddhism,Confucianism, and Shamanism. Nearly 7% are Christian. Protestants - 1,300,000 (mainly Presbyterian and Methodist). Catholics - 245,000.	The Koreans are considered part of the Mongoloid race, but distinct from both the Chinese and Japanese.
RYUKYU ISLANDS (OKINAWA)	Prevailing language is Japanese. English has become the second language.	Traditional religion - indigenous animistic cult,influenced in varying degrees by Confucianism,Shintoism,Buddhism and Christianity.	The Ryukyuans are an Asian people similar in physical appearance to the Japanese and Chinese.
TAIWAN	Mandarin - the official Chinese dialect. Most Taiwanese speak a variant of the Amoy dialect as their mother tongue.	Buddhism is predominant religion. Also Taoism. Protestants - 272,358. Roman Catholics - 163,814. Muslims - 40,000.	Chinese (descended from South China immigrants). About 100,000 Malay-speaking aborigines.

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 3 (Cont'd)

BASIC DATA - LANGUAGES: RELIGIONS: RACES

COUNTRY	LANGUAGE	RELIGION	RACE
OCEANIA			
AUSTRALIA	English is the official and prevailing language.	Church of England - 37.7% Presbyterian - 9.7% Methodist - 10.8% Roman Catholic - 23.3%	Predominantly of British descent. Heavy immigration since World War II of non-British element. Primitive aborigines (less than 50,000) are mostly detribalized.
NEW ZEALAND	English	Protestant faith predominates. Presbyterian -22% Anglican - 36%. Methodist -10%. Roman Catholic - 14%.	Mainly descendants of British settlers. Minority race: Maori (branch of Polynesian race) - 143,000.
NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA	Malay-Polynesian	Animistic cult of ancestral worship.	Papuans, mixed with Malays and Polynesians.

Sources: Other Lands, Other Peoples. A Country-by-Country Fact Book by Elizabeth M.Thompson. Committee on International Relations, National Education Association of the United States. Second Revised Edition, Fall 1962.
World Almanac and Book of Facts 1962. Published by the New York World-Telegram & The Sun.
A World of Facts. Civic Education, 1961.
Van Nostrand Atlas of the World. Princeton,N.J.: D.Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1961.

THE DEMOGRAPHIC SITUATION

The area of Asia is approximately the same as that of the Soviet Union or Northern America or Latin America, but in population it is more than seven times larger than any of these areas. This study, therefore, includes some of the most crowded parts of the world.

Countries with the largest populations are China Mainland, with 646 million people; India, 441 million. Population in Asia is growing at a faster rate than the world average. There are now 1,679 million people in Asia, more than the rest of the world put together, so that population growth in this region is an important factor in the growth of world population.

See TABLE No. 4 - GROWTH OF WORLD POPULATION BY CONTINENTS 1940-1960
TABLE No. 1 - AREA, POPULATION AND DENSITY (1962)

I. POPULATION PATTERNS

Population changes occur as a result of births, deaths and migrations. International migration, though important in Asia's past, is no longer likely to assume large proportions in the future. The projections, therefore, are carried out only on the basis of estimated rates of fertility and mortality, and assumed changes therein. It is admitted, however, that population growth in Singapore can be substantially affected by possible future migration.

Some vital statistics for the most recent years provide an indication that mortality in some countries is now declining with unprecedented speed. The evidence will remain controversial until verified with the detailed results of recent censuses. There is, as yet, no indication of an eventual decline of Asian birth rates, but this possibility has not been disregarded. The expected rapid population growth of Asia will underscore a variety of social and economic problems meriting detailed study.

Science and technology have made great contributions in Asia, but they also have created problems. One of the greatest effects of modern science on Asia to date has been a dramatic reduction in the death rate, as a result of the introduction of modern medicine and health measures. Dr. Karl J.Pelzer, of Yale University, when asked the question, what is the most consequential area of impact of science and technology on Southeast Asia, made this reply, "I single out without hesitation the impact of medical science on population growth."(1) It has been asserted that the population problem, caused by high birth rates and lowered death rates, is a basic cause of the "vicious circle of poverty and disease" in much of Asia. (See TABLE No. 6 - POPULATION GROWTH IN ASIA 1941-1960 in thousands).

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(1) Turn East Toward Asia. Sixth National Conference Report. U.S. National Commission for UNESCO. San Francisco, November 6-9,1957. p. 32.

Fertility

In Asia, the average birth rate in 1959 was about 42 per thousand. The Federation of Malaya and Brunei, Taiwan and Singapore, all had rates over 40. On the other hand, Japan had a very low rate of 17.5. (1) A United Nations population study(2) reports that birth rates, while generally high in comparison with those of modern western populations, have been far from uniform in Asian countries. In India, the average birth rate has been generally of the order of 45 per 1,000, though the rate has differed among the several regions. In Southeast Asia, birth rates as high as 50 per 1,000 in the Philippines, and as low as 39 per 1,000 in Viet-Nam, have been estimated for pre-war periods.

The most marked changes in the birth rate more recently occurred in Japan, the annual rate declining from a post-war peak of 34.3 in 1947, to 17.2 in 1957. Decreases of this order have not been noted in any other Asian population. Present indications regarding mainland China are ambiguous. According to one estimate, the birth rate in 1953 was 37; according to another, it was 42 per 1,000. Not much change in the birth rates of India and Pakistan seems to be indicated so far, though in India, according to some estimates, there may have been a very slow tendency towards decline, from rates possibly exceeding 45 per 1,000 in the early part of this century, to rates somewhat below 45 in more recent years.

For the combined area of Southeast Asia, the birth rate in the 1920's and 1930's, as well as in recent years, seems to have averaged about 45 per 1,000. In the 1940's, however, under the severely disturbed conditions of the war and post-war hostilities in some areas, birth rates seem to have been temporarily depressed to a varying extent.

See TABLE No. 5 -BIRTHS AND DEATHS: CURRENT STATISTICS for ASIA

Reasons for high birth rates. There are two important reasons for the constant high birth rates in most Asian countries. (1) Mortality in earlier times was so high that no society could have endured without a corresponding high fertility. (2) Despite the more recent mortality decline, the mores affecting fertility continue to depend on firmly ingrained social traditions and norms which, so far, have not changed much.

The United Nations report on The Population of Southeast Asia 1950-1980 indicates that "notable declines in fertility, to one-half or less of previously high levels, have occurred in populations of European descent, and in Japan. These declines have been associated with industrialization and urbanization of the modern type. Yet it is not clear what causal nexus has been at work. No area in Southeast Asia is more urban nor more industrial than Singapore, but the Singapore birth rate, reported as 48.2 for 1956, is the highest recorded in this region and has shown no tendency towards a decline.

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(1) United Nations - Office of Public Information. World Facts and Figures. 1962. p. 11.

(2) United Nations - The Population of Asia and the Far East, 1950-1980. Report IV. Future Population Estimates by Sex and Age. Population Studies No. 31. ST/SOA/Series A/31. New York: Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 1959. p. 3.

"By the evidence of Singapore, therefore, urban industrial development does not, of itself, necessarily provoke a fall in birth rates. Other conditions, such as the structure of families and kinship groups, and the strength of social traditions which govern intra-family and inter-family relations, are of at least equal importance in this connection. The latter may undergo various modifications under the influence of changes in habitat and economic activity, but the effects of change may not appear as rapidly in some societies as they may in others. Anthropological study has not been carried nearly far enough to provide any clues in this matter."(1)

This report continues, "Population growth itself is a powerful factor of economic and social change...As mortality decreases, more children, on an average, survive in each family. As the numbers of survivors are increased, the social and economic accommodation of adolescents within the traditional kinship and village organization may become increasingly difficult. Changes of occupation and migration to other localities may be necessitated by population growth alone, if not also by the new government plans and programs designed to stimulate economic development. As a result, the conditions under which young persons marry, and married persons form families, cannot remain the same."(2)

Mortality

A United Nations population study reports that "in India and Pakistan, the gradual acceleration of population growth has resulted largely from a gradual decrease in death rates, which fell from an average near 35 per 1,000 in the 1920's to an average of about 30, or slightly less, in the 1940's."(3)

The past mortality trend in China is still mostly a matter of sheer conjecture. Because of major political and military disturbances, the average death rate probably remained high - well in excess of 30 per 1,000 - until recently, although public health efforts in the 1930's and 1940's might have achieved some reductions of mortality from infectious diseases. After the cessation of hositilities, the increasing success of public health measures probably resulted in a sharp reduction of the death rate in China. One recent estimate gives a death rate of 21 per 1,000 during 1951-1954.

In Japan, the death rate declined continuously from 23.0 per 1,000 in 1920-24 to 16.3 in 1940-44, and from a post-war peak of 29.2 in 1945 and 17.6 in 1946, to the low figure of 7.4 in 1958. Similar, though less marked declines in mortality, also occurred in Taiwan and Korea.

Since the end of World War II, spectacular decreases in death rates have been reliably recorded in Ceylon, Taiwan, Malaya and Singapore, as well as in

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(1) United Nations - Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs. The Population of South-East Asia (including Ceylon and China: Taiwan 1950-1980. Report III, Future Population Estimates by Sex and Age. Population Studies No. 30, ST/SOA/Series A/30. New York, 1958 p. 21.

(2) Ibid. p. 21.

(3) United Nations -Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs. The Population of Asia and the Far East 1950-1980. Report IV. Op.cit.,p. 3.

Japan. Less reliable records for other areas also bear out that the death rate is decreasing at an accelerating pace throughout Asia. (See TABLE No. 5 - BIRTHS AND DEATHS: CURRENT STATISTICS FOR ASIA).

Density

Compared with the population giants of China and India, the Southeast Asian region does not seem, at first glance, to be very heavily populated. Yet, a great variety of population densities appear within the region. Since rapid growth is to be expected in every area, the diversity will be no less in 1980. (See TABLE No. 1 - AREA,POPULATION AND DENSITY).

Europe is still the most densely populated continent, with Asia not very far behind. People in Australia and New Zealand still have more elbow room than people elsewhere, with a density of 3.5 and 23 per square mile respectively. (See TABLE NO. 4 - GROWTH OF WORLD POPULATION 1940-1960).

One outstanding feature of the Southeast Asian region is the great unevenness with which population is distributed within the national territories. "The density of population, however, is an elusive concept. In the first place, not all land is equally suitable for human settlement, hence a given density of population may be excessive in some areas and yet too low for efficient resource-utilization and social integration in others. In the second place, density measures assume a different meaning when small rather than large areas are studied. Depending on degrees of economic and social organization, each society develops its peculiar ecology in a hierarchy of inhabited places, ranging from cities, towns and agglomerated villages to small settlements, hamlets, scattered farms and nomadic groups."(1)

The most densely settled agrarian regions in the world are in the Red River delta of Northern Viet-Nam, the Menam delta of Lower Thailand, and a large portion of the island of Java. Considerable concentrations appear also in the Irrawaddy delta of Lower Burma, the Lower Mekong River (south Viet-Nam), and in central Luzon and the Visaya islands of the Philippines. In contrast, population densities are very low in large parts of Burma, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia, many parts of Indonesia except Java, and in some of the islands of the Philippines. It should be noted that the Southeast Asian areas of dense population coincides very nearly with the areas in which intensive forms of rice cultivation are practiced. Methods of cultivation vary greatly from one area to another. Where cultivation is intensive, it is both a cause and an effect of dense settlement.(2)

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(1) United Nations - Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs. The Population of South-East Asia (including Ceylon and China: Taiwan) 1950-1980. Report III. Op.cit., p. 49.

(2) For a further review of this two-fold relationship between methods of cultivation and density of population, see U.N.Report III - The Population of South-East Asia 1950-1980. Op.cit.

II. POPULATION TRENDS

The fundamental fact is that sharply reduced mortality and an unchanging fertility are producing rates of growth unparallelled in world history.

Many discussions assume that the demographic transition which occurred in Europe in the 19th century is some sort of a "law of nature" and that populations almost automatically go through such a transition. There is no evidence to support such a belief. "In the West, the demographic transition from a balance of high death and birth rates to a new balance of low death and birth rates was a slow and gradual process, in step with a similarly slow and gradual improvement in economic and social conditions...But in Asia...the recent decline in mortality has been rapid, because it has resulted primarily from the introduction of advances in medicine, and in epidemic control methods which had been developed elsewhere. In most of the countries, therefore, mortality has fallen before any major improvement in social and economic conditions has occurred...A very long time may well elapse before the levels of living in (Asian) countries are high enough to produce a new balance of low death and birth rates. In such circumstances, the rapid rate of population growth which would occur in the interval would probably act as a brake on the economic development of most countries, and have a very important retarding effect in some cases. This is all the more true since the emigration outlet, which provided substantial relief to population pressure in Europe during its demographic transition, is not available to Asian countries to any significant extent."(1)

India and Pakistan. With reference to the Indian subcontinent, Norton Ginsburg writes that "the three most significant facts of growth of population are: (a) the huge absolute increases, (b) the continuing high level of natural fertility, and (c) the grinding poverty of the people. Accelerated rate of increase during recent decades has resulted in increments of almost unbelievable numbers in the Indian Union and Pakistan: 1921-1931, 32 million (10.6 percent increase); 1931 to 1941, 51 million (15 percent); and 1941-1951, 48 million (12.4 percent)...in the decade of 1941 to 1951 when famine in Bihar, Bengal and South India caused uncounted millions of deaths, and several hundreds of thousands died because of religious strife in the Punjab following the partition of India(1947), there was still an enormous increase. These three consecutive decades of rapid growth added nearly 132 million to the population of India and Pakistan - a figure which is 60 percent in excess of Japan's total population in 1950, or 88 percent of the whole U.S. population in 1950."(2)

India and Pakistan are still in an early stage of the shift from an agrarian to an urban-industrial economy and show the usual wide margin of births over deaths. "The annual death rate has gradually dropped from 40 to 45 per thousand at the beginning of the century to about 30 per thousand, while the birth rate has remained generally in the range from 40 to 45 per thousand, giving promise of still further rapid population increases of 10 to 15 percent per decade. The growth trend has yet shown little evidence of stabilization, following the cycle of rapid growth...The teeming masses of India and Pakistan, who owe their increases to the reduction of warfare, famine, and disease, have not

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(1) Quoted from United Nations "Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East", June 1959 in Population and Food Supply. United Nations Office of Public information (FFHC Basic Study No.7) 1962. pp. 7-9.

(2) Ginsburg, Norton (Ed.) The Pattern of Asia. Englewood Cliffs,N.J.: Prentice-Hall,Inc. 1958. pp. 465-467.

enjoyed the economic benefits of modern scientific and technological advances and have remained a poor, underfed, agrarian people. Overseas emigration is not a potential outlet because of political factors and the future millions will have to find their livelihood within the territory of the subcontinent..."(1)

Japan. In Japan the population trends have been unique as compared with other Asian countries. A United Nations census study(2) of population changes in Japan reports a seemingly regular rate of growth, averaging about 1.3 to 1.4 percent per annum from 1920 to 1955. However, the report indicates that this conceals the effects of changing birth rates and death rates, both of them falling with comparable speed. The rate of natural increase seems to be fairly constant in the period 1920-1958, as shown in the following table:

Period	Birth rate	Death rate	Natural increase
1920-24	35.0	23.0	12.0
1925-29	24.0	19.8	14.2
1930-34	31.8	18.1	13.7
1935-39	29.2	17.4	11.8
1940-44	30.1	16.3	13.8
1945-49	29.9	17.0	12.9
1950-54	23.7	9.4	14.3
1955-58	18.2	7.9	10.3

"The reduction in the frequency of births has been brought about partly by the widespread practice of legalized induced abortions and partly by a rapid dissemination of contraceptive practices. Both of these developments have been favored under the Revised Eugenics Protection Law adopted by the Japanese Diet in 1948, and aided by various health activities including the cooperation of the practicing physicians and family planning clinics established in some 800 health centres, industrial plants and community groups. Widespread publicity for contraceptive knowledge has been given in the press and other media, particularly women's magazines, in a highly literate population. In addition, Japan's military defeat in 1945 and noted changes in the country's economic and social structure, particularly the emancipation of women, instituted during a period of severe economic difficulties, have undoubtedly contributed to the formation of attitudes favorable to family limitation."(3)

Mortality in Japan is now quite low. It is most likely to decline further, pursuing a trend similar to that observed in industrialized countries of the Occident.

III. POPULATION PROJECTIONS

It has been assumed generally that mortality will continue to decline considerably in every area, and that the rapidity of decline in many countries will be almost unprecedented for some time to come. It has also been assumed

(1) Ginsburg, Norton (Ed.) The Pattern of Asia. Op.cit., p. 467.

(2) United Nations. The Population of Asia and the Far East 1950-1980. Report IV. Op.cit., pp. 30-31.

(3) Ibid., p. 32.

that fertility, on the whole, will retain much of the inertia which seems to have characterized the trends of birth rates in this region in the past, though in some countries changing conditions may give rise to more distinct decreases in birth rates in the future. In some countries, family planning is now favored or even directly supported, as a government policy, making a future decrease in birth rates more probably than it would be in the absence of such a policy.

In a series of projections, the staff of the Population Branch of the Bureau of Social Affairs of the United Nations determined the populations that would be produced in future decades, if the fertility of Asia's population remained at the level of a gross reproduction rate of 3.0 percent annually. "If this coincidence of unchanging fertility and declining mortality were to continue, the population of Asia would increase from the 1.5 billion of 1955 to 2.2 billion in 1975 and 4.2 billion in 2000. The increase in numbers would amount to 720 million between 1955 and 1975, to 2.0 billion between 1975 and 2000."(1)

Irene Taeuber makes this comment: "It is widely recognized that industrial Japan offers no firm basis for assessing the probable future in agrarian Asia. It should be noted, however, that drastic changes did occur in the fertility of the Japanese, including both peasants and urban dwellers, and that these declines were not foreseen by statesmen or by publicists...Perhaps economic development can keep pace for a while with rates of population increase of 2 or 3 percent a year. Perhaps Asia can move through a demographic transition that gives her a population of 12 to 15 billion sometime in the next century. Perhaps growth is such an insuperable problem that the Asian peoples can escape only temporarily from a ruthless limitation of their numbers by malnutrition, debility, and premature death...The answers are known to none of us. They will be given in the actions of Asian governments and the decisions of Asian peoples, not alone in the restricted field of fertility control but in the broad fields of economic development and social change."(2)

IV. SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF POPULATION GROWTH

Conditions vary so greatly from one country to another that it would be rash to make any generalized statement concerning the impact of population on economic conditions in all of Asia. As reviewed by a United Nations report,(3) there are great variations in average population densities, degrees of urbanization and the relative importance of the cash economy. Dependence on agriculture is high, but not uniformly so. Very unequal portions of national territories are used in agriculture, and varying proportions for the production of rice, the staple food. Rice output has roughly kept pace with population growth, in some instances through a rise in yields, most of them still low, in others through double-cropping or the cultivation of additional lands. However, there is a tendency that in rice exporting countries, the

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(1) "Asia's Increasing Population" by Irene B. Taeuber in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Asia and Future World Leadership. Vol. 318, July 1958. Phila. (Ed. Thorsten Sellin). p.5.

(2) Ibid., p. 7.

(3) United Nations - The Population of Southeast Asia 1950-1980. Report III. Op.cit., p. 43.

margin of exportable surplus will diminish. Foreign trade plays a major role in the national economies but its relative importance has declined recently. In some countries, a majority of the adult population are now literate, in others only a small minority. To these contrasts and differences, probably many others can be added, such as diversities in the distribution of incomes, land ownership and tenancy systems, the growth of cities, and the forms of village and family organization. In short, a study on a large scope is required before the varying situations in the several countries can be suitably compared and assessed.

Several conclusions can be reached regarding population growth and its social and economic implications.

1. "Since economic growth is ordinarily defined as growth in per capita national income, which in turn is defined as the ratio of production to population, it is obvious that trends in population can, mathematically speaking, play as large a role in economic growth as trends in production. In fact, some observers maintain that, for a number of countries, from a purely economic point of view, the most efficient investment to promote economic growth would be investment, not in economic production, but in reduction of birth rates."(1)

2. Sometimes population growth aids economic growth. "In sparsely settled areas, e.g., in British Borneo, costs of transportation and various overheads are lowered, the division of labor increases, and markets are organized more efficiently, as population becomes larger. Also, once a certain threshold of industrial development has been attained, further investments are stimulated by an expectation of increasing returns in a widening market. The structure of the economy then also undergoes a change. There is the need to orient economic and social development so that population growth, instead of being a drag, becomes a positive stimulus in bringing about a rising level of living while preserving the necessary social cohesion."(2)

3. Another outstanding conclusion emerges: the population in Asian countries is predominantly very young. Youthfulness and growth have characterized the same population also in the past, and yet there is a difference in degree. "The proportions of children and adolescents in the total population now tend to rise...at the same time, the rate of population growth is greatly augmented, from between one and two percent per annum in past decades to nearly 3 percent per annum in the decades to come."(3)

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(1) United Nations - Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs - Report on the World Social Situation. E/CN.5/346/Rev.1 ST/SOA/42 New York, 1961, p.25.

(2) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. The Population of South-East Asia 1950-1980. Report III. Op.cit., p. 38.

(3) Ibid., p. 38.

For a further discussion of population problems, its social and economic implications in under-developed nations, see the following:

Fagley, Richard M. The Population Explosion and Christian Responsibility. New York: Oxford University Press. 1960.

DeVries, Egbert. Man in Rapid Social Change. Published for the World Council of Churches by Doubleday and Company, Inc. New York: 1961.

TABLE No. 4

GROWTH OF WORLD POPULATION 1940-1950-1960

(in millions and percentages)

Continent and Region	Estimates of Midyear Population (millions)(1)			Annual rate of increase(1)	AREA(2)	DENSITY(2) per
	1940	1950	1960	1950-60 (%)	(Sq.Mi.)	sq.mi. 1958
WORLD TOTAL	2,246	2,518	2,995	1.8	52,263,000	54
AFRICA	172	209	254	2.0	11,694,000	21
Northern Africa	57	75	88	1.7	3,987,000	81
Tropical and Southern Africa	115	134	166	2.1	7,707,000	21
AMERICA(a)	277	331	405	2.1	16,231,000	-
North America	146	168	199	1.8	8,300,000	23
Middle America	41	51	66	2.7	1,060,000	60
South America	90	112	140	2.3	6,871,000	21
ASIA(b)	1,212	1,389	1,679	1.9	10,482,000	153
South West Asia	53	61	77	2.4	2,168,000	34
South Central Asia	410	474	559	1.6	1,979,000	269
South East Asia	155	175	214	2.0	1,732,000	117
East Asia	594	679	829	2.0	4,603,000	168
EUROPE(c)	381	395	427	0.8	1,903,000	220
Northern and Western Europe	128	133	142	0.7	870,000	161
Central Europe	127	128	139	0.8	391,000	347
Southern Europe	126	134	146	0.9	642,000	220
OCEANIA(a)	11.3	13.0	16.5	2.4	3,304,000	5
U.S.S.R.	192	181	214.4	1.7	8,649,000	24

(a) Hawaii, though a state of the United States of America, is included in Oceania.

(b) Excluding the USSR shown separately below. Including Asiatic Turkey.

(c) Excluding the USSR shown separately below. Including European Turkey.

(1) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Statistical Yearbook 1961. Sales No.: 62-XVII-I. New York: 1961. p. 41.

(2) Atlas of the World. D. Van Nostrand, Inc. Princeton, New Jersey. p. 20. (Source: Statistical Yearbook of the United Nations, 1959).

TABLE No. 5

BIRTHS AND DEATHS: CURRENT STATISTICS FOR ASIA(1)

Country	Year	TOTAL BIRTHS Number	TOTAL BIRTHS Rate%	TOTAL DEATHS Number	TOTAL DEATHS Rates%	Average Life Span(2)
SOUTH ASIA						
Ceylon	1960	361,702	36.6	84,918	8.6	60
India	1959	8,360,789	21.9	3,522,519	9.2	42
Nepal	1952-54	...	45	...	30	35
Pakistan	1954	1,513,829	...	731,793	...	under 50
SOUTHEAST ASIA						
Burma	1961	91,044	38.5	43,536	18.4	under 50
Indonesia	1959	1,601,622	29.5	643,996	11.9	under 50
Federation of Malaya	1960	282,755	40.9	65,636	9.5	59
Philippines	1960	810,904	29.2	212,688	7.7	51
Singapore	1961	61,612	36.5	10,116	6.0	
Thailand	1959	861,354	39.4	206,118	9.4	50
Viet-Nam(Rep.)	1959	391,692	31.0	83,424	6.6	35
Other Areas						
Brit.Borneo						
Brunei	1960	4,105	48.9	917	10.9	
N.Borneo	1961	15,898	34.6	3,111	6.8	
Sarawak	1961	19,678	25.9	3,986	5.2	
Cambodia	1959	200,000	41.4	95,000	19.7	44
Laos	...	...	...	...	...	30
FAR EAST						
China(Mainland)	1957	...	34	...	11	under 50
Hong Kong	1961	108,726	34.2	18,738	5.9	
Japan	1961	1,586,413	16.9	695,374	7.4	67
Korea(North)	1957	...	46.3	...	13.5	49
Republic of Korea(South)	1955	787,581	36.6	455,735	21.2	49
Macau	1960	5,330	32.7	1,733	...	
Ryukyu Is.-Okinawa	1960	20,981	23.6	4,645	5.2	
Taiwan	1961	420,254	38.3	73,823	6.7	55
OCEANIA						
Australia	1961	239,986	22.8	88,961	8.5	70
New Zealand	1961	65,476	27.1	21,782	9.0	

(1) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Population and Vital Statistics Report. Data available as of October 1, 1962. Statistical Papers,Series A, Volume XIV, No. 4. ST/STAT/SER.A/63. New York, 1962.

(2) A World of Facts. Civic Education Service. 1961.

TABLE No. 6

POPULATION GROWTH IN ASIA 1941-1951-1960
(in thousands)

Country	1941	1951	1960
SOUTH ASIA			
Ceylon	6,178	7,876	9,896
India	318,826	362,832	432,567
Nepal	6,284	...	9,180
Pakistan	70,279	77,128	92,727
SOUTHEAST ASIA			
Burma	16,824	18,672	20,662
Indonesia	71,534	77,100	92,600
Federation of Malaya	4,740	5,288	6,909
Philippines	16,774	20,962	27,792
Singapore	769	1,068	1,634
Thailand	15,621	18,837	26,258
Viet-Nam (North)	...	...	15,917
Republic of Viet-Nam	...	...	14,100
Other Areas			
British Borneo			
Br. North Borneo	...	335	454
Sarawak	...	570	745
Brunei	...	47	84
Cambodia	...	4,074	4,952
Laos	...	1,360	1,805
FAR EAST			
Hong Kong	1,639	2,013	3,128
Japan	71,600	84,200	93,200
Republic of Korea	. .	20,671	24,665
Ryukyu Islands - Okinawa	571	716	883
Taiwan	6,163	7,717	10,612
OCEANIA			
Australia	7,110	8,422	10,275
New Zealand	1,629	1,947	2,372

Note: Unless otherwise indicated, data are official estimates of population for July 1, or averages of end-year estimates. Figures underscored are census results relating to date of enumeration.

Source: United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Statistical Office of the United Nations. Demographic Yearbook 1961. Thirteenth Issue. Special Topic: Mortality Statistics. Sales No.: 62.XIII.1. New York, 1961. pp. 130-136.

TABLE No. 7

ESTIMATES OF THE FUTURE POPULATION OF COUNTRIES IN ASIA 1955-1975
(rounded to thousands, three significant figures, medium assumptions)

Region and country	1955	1965	1975
ASIA			
Central South Asia			
Afghanistan	12,000	13,800	16,900
Bhutan	624	762	951
Ceylon	8,680	11,100	14,100
India	386,000	456,000	563,000
Maldive Is.	80	77	88
Nepal	8,600	10,500	13,100
Pakistan	83,200	102,000	128,000
South East Asia			
Burma	19,400	22,400	27,400
Cambodia	4,360	5,180	6,410
Indonesia	81,900	98,300	122,000
Laos	1,420	1,750	2,170
Viet-Nam	26,300	32,300	40,400
Thailand	20,500	25,600	32,100
Philippines	22,100	27,200	34,100
Brunei	65	88	112
Malaya	6,070	7,980	10,200
North Borneo	373	486	619
Portuguese Timor	469	560	695
Sarawak	614	751	939
Singapore	1,250	1,700	2,200
W. New Guinea	700	749	858
East Asia (without Japan)			
China (Mainland)	600,000	720,000	894,000
China (Taiwan)	8,910	12,100	15,600
Korea	29,000	34,700	43,000
Mong. People's Rep.	1,000	1,160	1,440
Hong Kong	2,340	2,660	3,240
Macau	199	239	297
Japan and Ryukyu Islands			
Japan	89,100	102,000	116,000
Ryukyu Is.(U.S.)	800	983	1,150
OCEANIA			
Australia and New Zealand			
Australia	9,340	11,200	13,000
New Zealand	2,150	2,572	2,970

Source: United Nations - The FutureGrowth of World Population.
Population Studies No. 28, 1958. pp. 74-75.

TABLE No. 8

AGE COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION

(Percent)

Country	Census Year	Age composition of the population (percent)		
		Under 15 years	15-59 years	60 years and over
AUSTRALIA	1947	25.2	62.5	12.3
BURMA	1931	37.4	57.5	5.1
CEYLON	1946	37.2	57.4	5.4
CHINA: TAIWAN	1940	44.1	51.1	4.8
INDIA	1951	37.4	56.9	5.7
JAPAN	1950	35.4	56.9	7.7
KOREA (SOUTH)	1949	41.7	53.0	5.3
MALAYA, FEDERATION OF	1947	39.9	55.1	5.0
SINGAPORE	1947	36.0	60.5	3.5
PAKISTAN	1951	...	...	5.0
PHILIPPINES	1948	44.2	51.0	4.9
RYUKYU ISLANDS	1950	39.2	53.0	7.8
THAILAND	1947	42.3	53.5	4.2
NEW ZEALAND	1951	29.4	57.3	13.2

Source: United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation, including studies of urbanization in underdeveloped areas. E/CN. 5/324/Rev. 1 ST/SOA/33. Sales No.: 1957.IV.3. New York, 1957. p. 22.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION

Emergent Nations

From Pakistan to Korea, Asia is a kaleidoscope of different cultures, races, religions, languages, climates, forms of government and stages of development. Twelve countries have become independent since World War II and are making strenuous efforts toward developing their resources and improving the lot of the common people. Most of them have had to undertake programs of health, education, agricultural and industrial development, all amid the turmoil of war's aftermath. (See TABLE No. 9 - POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF ASIA AND OCEANIA).

While it is true that Asia as a political entity or concept does not exist, this does not mean that the Asian peoples do not have as yet any sense of solidarity, or feeling that they belong to Asia and that, by and large,the solutions of their difficulties must be worked out in Asia, rather than in,or by, the west. The Bandung Conference of 1955 was the expression of this feeling of solidarity as the emergent nations faced some of the overwhelming challenges of today. For the nations which have recently achieved independence from colonial rule, the dramatic act of national independence was but the first step along a long and difficult road.

In the wake of a successful revolutionary movement to win independence, three main political problems or tasks emerge, according to Vera Micheles Dean.

(1) "The revolutionary or nationalist movement...must be reoriented into a responsible administration."(1) It is not simply a matter of handing a set of democratic principles to the leaders of a nation and expecting them to apply them. "The past decade in world history," say some Indian writers,"has been a sad story of repeated failures of democracy in the newly emerging nation-states in Asia and Africa. But this does not warrant the conclusion that democracy is unsuitable to their peoples. For two reasons, at least. First, a democratic system of government is not inborn in any society, it is a product of cultivation...Secondly, it should be borne in mind that in many of these countries the new political organization was not in fact democratic."(2) What really failed in these cases was not democracy itself, but the external forms of institutions attempting to implement it.

(2) The new rulers "must undertake the political reorganization of the country they have freed from the rule of others before a vacuum dangerous for their own survival can develop."(3) In this process of political reorganization, or re-alignment, there invariably emerges a leader,or prominent figure,

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(1) Dean, Vera Micheles. The Nature of the Non-Western World. New York: The New American Library, 1957. p. 212.

(2) Devanandan, P.D. and Thomas, M.M.(Editors). Problems of Indian Democracy. The Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society, 1962. p. 1.

(3) Dean, Vera Micheles. Op.cit., p. 213.

who symbolizes the hopes and aspirations of the people. Examples were men like Nehru of India, Sukarno of Indonesia, Mao Tse-Tung of China,and O. Nu of Burma. They seemed to have one thing in common, they were charismatic personalities who in the eyes of their people had "a more than human endowment, a touch of divine grace and special wisdom."(1)

(3) Once political reorganization has been effected, the rulers face a third task - "that of carrying out 'the revolution of greater expectations' which he and his associates fostered during the preceding struggle and of fulfilling the promises of a better, richer, happier life they had held out as the guerdon of a new era."(2)

Democracy

Historically, democracy is a product of western civilization and culture. With its roots in the Judaic-Christian tradition, it developed over the centuries to what it is today. It must not be forgotten that it did not spring up overnight, nor will it do so in Asia. When the Asian won his right to rule himself, "having no indigenous concept of political freedom, he was forced to adopt that which his colonial ruler refused to give him - democracy."(3) To the Asian there seemed to be no doubt that democracy was an indication of political maturity, a sort of success symbol. "Unfortunately, the nationalists' experience of democracy (before independence) was vicarious - like that of hungry men watching diners through a plate-glass window."(4) Some Asian leaders had been put in jail for seeking for their people the very freedoms they had witnessed and learned about in western universities and western literature.

Some in the west have endeavored to measure the maturity of the Asian people by their ability to practice democracy, as it is known in Europe and the United States, as if democracy were like a garment which could be easily put on. Years ago "they (some in the west) insisted that these peoples could be worthy of independence only if they showed the capacity to practice western-type democracy and, since this goal was unattainable, rationalized by saying that the time for independence had not yet arrived."(5)

In the intervening years since political independence was won, progress has been made, at least in some countries, toward democracy. The Indians can say, "we have given to ourselves a democratic constitution and upheld it. We have...held two nation-wide general elections within the last decade...to consult the people about alternative political parties, ideas and programs. We have demonstrated that economic planning and political freedom need not be antithetic."(6)

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(1) Dean, Vera Micheles. Op.cit., p. 214.
(2) Ibid., p. 214
(3) Edwardes, Michael. Asia in the Balance. Baltimore, Maryland: Penguin Books, 1962. p. 77.
(4) Ibid., p. 77.
(5) Dean, Vera Micheles. Op.cit., p. 208.
(6) Devanandan, P.D. and Thomas,M.M. Op.cit., p. 6. Since this book was written(1962) a third election has been held.

In Indonesia, Burma and Viet-Nam, there are"tutelary democracies", or what Sukarno calls "guided democracies". Democratic structures have been established, but legislative bodies do not function, and power resides in the executive branch of the government. At the Inaugural Assembly of the East Asia Christian Conference in 1959, there was discussion of the question as to whether in certain circumstances authoritarian systems might not be a means of safeguarding democratic values. The report said: "These questions are being asked in East Asian countries today. Democracy defined as a system of government holding freedom, order and justice in balance can be distinguished from democracy as a parliamentary method of controlling government. But when parliamentary methods of control over the power of government are abandoned, the Christian, who knows the danger of corruption of power, is bound to ask what other methods of checks and balances are available in alternative systems. Ultimately a system of government will be tested by its capacity to develop a sense of community among its people, achieve their deliverance from economic bondage and preserve the basic liberties of individuals and associations. It is our conviction that this balance of objectives will be best preserved only by a democratic political system."(1)

Unlike India, where a national Congress became the representative body after independence, in Pakistan, where eighty-six percent of the population are Muslims, the Muslim League assumed power. "Pakistan faces two serious political problems. The first is how to hold two sectors of the nation together... The other is how to reorient the Muslim League to the reconstruction of the state on lines which would permit peaceful coexistence between the Muslim majority and the Hindu minority."(2) In 1956 there were ten million Hindus in Pakistan, out of a total population of 80 million. (In 1962 the population of Pakistan was estimated at 96 million.)

In Ceylon, language and religion have been determinants in recent political development. The majority of Ceylonese speak Sinhalese and the minority Tamil. In 1956 a party known as MEP (Mahajana Eksath Peranuna),(3) based on the Sinhalese-speaking sector of the population in alliance with two Trotskyite parties, and with Buddhist support, won the elections and came to power. Ideologically, the party was based on traditional cultural values and is essentially socialist in character.

The history of the Philippines has been different from that of any other country in Asia. Dominated by Spain for three centuries, the influence of Spanish culture penetrated deep into the life of the people. In 1900 the Philippines became an American possession and remained such until after World War II. For nearly fifty years Filipinos were encouraged to develop political parties, rather than participate in administration. Four presidential elections have been held in the Philippines since independence. The election of a fifth president marked a substantial step in the direction of perfecting Philippine democracy, "a democracy already nearer the western model than any other political system in Southeast Asia."(4)

(1) Witnesses Together- Report of the Inaugural Assembly of the East Asia Christian Conference, held at Kuala Lumpur, Malaya,May 14-24,1959.p.61.
(2) Dean, Vera Micheles. Op.cit., pp. 85-86.
(3) Edwardes, Michael. Op.cit., p. 45.
(4) Wurfel, David. "The Philippine Elections: Support for Democracy," in Asian Survey, May 1962,Vol.II,Number 3. Institute of International Studies, University of California. p. 25.

Thailand is the one country in Southeast Asia which was never under colonial rule. Western influence, however, has been strong, but democratic institutions and forms of government have not emerged as much as in other countries.

As far as political development is concerned, Japan is in a class by itself. "The new constitution of 1947 removed the Japanese emperor from his pedestal of sacrosanct divinity and reduced him to a mere symbol of state...Sovereignty is now vested in the people and exercised through a popularly elected parliament, the Diet. Japan has thus joined the ranks of parliamentary democracies."(1) The Japanese people today enjoy freedom of speech,assembly, press and association, to a degree unknown in former years.

Korea and Viet-Nam are the two countries which are deeply divided politically, the northern half in each case being under Communist rule, and the south striving toward the establishment of a western-type democracy. In considering the development of democracy in Korea, its long history of disturbance and turmoil must be remembered. The will to democracy is there, but it takes time to be translated into reality. "There is a good prospect that a sound Korean version of genuine democracy will emerge far more rapidly than did Western versions, but such a system cannot be created by push-button methods or purchased at a set price."(2) The future of democratic institutions and the possibility of establishing government by consent of the governed in Viet-Nam are in the balance. Civil war conditions, the poverty of the masses and the low literacy rate make progress towards democracy extremely difficult.

Nationalism

Nationalism is a force which must be recognized in an attempt to understand the new Asia. "Nationalism...is a positive and creative response to the shattering impact upon Asia of the modern West. In consequence, it means the appearance of a new élan, a new dynamism, in a society which has come to insist on taking the control of its destiny into its own hands."(3) The dynamics of nationalism consist of the establishment of a direct relationship between the individual and the nation of which he is a part. The consciousness of this relationship opens up new possibilities of community development, and provides new horizons of social concern.

M.M.Thomas, in an address before the East Asia Christian Conference, maintained that "nationalism means not primarily a fight against what we call imperialism or any other enemy outside, but (also) the struggle for nation-building. With the attainment of national independence we are called upon to give positive content to what we mean by the nation."(4) It would seem that the basic urges underlying national freedom and independence as well as the struggle to achieve new life for the peoples of Asia are common to all of the countries, regardless of their structure as political democracies, military or even communist governments. The overriding effort to build a new nation is something which is common to all the Asian countries, including China.

(1) Langer, Paul F. "Japan, New Problems, New Promises". Headline Series, No. 134. Foreign Policy Association. March-April 1959.p. 9.
(2) Weems, Clarence Norwood. "Korea, Dilemma of Underdeveloped Country". Headline Series, No. 144. Foreign Policy Association.Nov.-Dec.1960,p.20.
(3) Emerson,Rupert. "The Progress of Nationalism" in Nationalism and Progress in Free Asia, Thayer,Philip W.(Ed.)Balt.Md.:The Johns Hopkins Press, 1956. p. 73.
(4) Witnesses Together. Op.cit., p. 43.

It should be noted, however, that "Asian nationalism, with the exception of Japan, began largely as a movement of the middle class, the articulate, modernized section of society. The peasantry...was unawakened, and a large body of modern industrial laborers did not exist."(1)

Nationalism has taken different forms and developed in diverse ways in Asia. "Indian nationalism...tended to glorify ancient traditions...Chinese nationalism was, in important ways, a revolt against the Chinese past - against Confucianism, the traditional family system...Indian nationalism, too, incorporated many modern ideas, but in the search for self-confidence and ideological weapons against foreign rulers, it gradually turned to ancient tradition."(2)

Nationalist leaders in some countries have discovered that the myths which sustained and nourished the revolutionary movement do not help to solve the many administrative problems which confront a new nation. Thus, "the independent regimes that came to power after the withdrawal of the West have been forced to use authoritarian methods in order to maintain public order."(3) The rulers of newly independent nations found conflicting interests, based on religious or ethnic grounds, and thus a cohesive political unity was hard to attain. "Once freedom was achieved, nationalists felt impelled to counter the demands of differing ethnic groups and regional units to seek autonomy in their own right. Nationalism was in a very real sense, therefore, the universal political factor. In 1955 the cooperation of rival communal groups in Malaya under the Alliance party banner was achieved on the basis of nationalist demands for early independence."(4)

Nation-building

Implicit in the term nationalism is the basic idea of forming or establishing a new nation. "This (nationalism) has a western origin: Asians inherited the concept of 'nation' from the West, when they started their struggle against imperialism."(5) Closely allied to the ideas of nationalism and of building a new nation is the modernization of society. "...Nation-building, industrialization, the establishment of compulsory education and of democratic institutions, all these are integral to the modernization of society. But neither the idea of modernization, nor the methods and techniques by which it is realized, have roots in Asian tradition...Needless to say, the spirit of modernization is rationalism, and in the West, economic rationalism has been embodied in modern capitalism. In Asia, only Japan has been able to achieve modernization in the sense of becoming a strong capitalist nation, which could rapidly industrialize itself."(6) Shiozuki believes that the majority of the nation-builders of Asia today "are convinced that the capitalist system is outmoded...and that... nation-building must be undertaken from the very beginning on the foundations of some kind of socialism."(7)

(1) Holland, William L. Op.cit., p. 26.
(2) Ibid., pp. 53-54.
(3) Edwardes, Michael. Op.cit., p. 33.
(4) Cady, John F. "Evolving Political Institutions in Southeast Asia" in Nationalism and Progress in Free Asia. Op.cit., p. 117.
(5) Shiozuki, Kentaro. "Our Calling to Service in Asia Today" in Student World. World Student Christian Federation, Vol.LV, Third Quarter 1962. pp. 262-63.
(6) Ibid., p. 264.
(7) Ibid., p. 265.

The vast undertaking of building new nations and modernizing society involves every aspect of human life, as well as all social relationships, in the field of health, in education, social welfare, economic development, rural rehabilitation, civil liberties and religious freedom. The path which the nation-builders wish to follow is a new one, of their own choosing, and that is what makes the picture so complex. "The image of the modern nation possessed by leaders in many young countries is not simply a copy of any existing nation, but is very much one of their conception based upon their historical insights and prospects."(1)

This undertaking involves the creation of a nation-state upon the foundations of a centuries-old traditional culture with new insights and concepts in the political, economic, social and cultural fields. "Nation-building... has three important elements: the cultural renaissance and the resurgence of religions, which provide the necessary spiritual foundations and restores national dignity; democratization, which assures equal opportunities for all citizens, and industrialization, which is indispensable in laying the material foundations for a modern society."(2)

"Most Asian leaders with their Western education and experience would probably prefer to see their countries develop along democratic lines, with their own influence depending on the consent of the governed...Indian leaders are saying: 'We deny that Asians must give up their freedom to get bread. We believe that by developing our country with the consent of all the governed, we can have more bread and freedom, too. Free elections for all, free speech, public debate on every phase of our Five-Year Plans will produce more understanding, more support and harder work from our people over the long haul,than totalitarian propaganda or forced labor ever could. By what we accomplish in India we will prove that democracy with all its complexities is the best and most lasting way to satisfy the material and spiritual needs of all the people.' "(3)

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(1) Shiozuki, Kentaro. "Our Calling to Service in Asia Today". Op.cit.,p.265.
(2) Shiozuki, Kentaro. "The Role of the Asian University" in Federation News. November 1962. No.4. World Student Christian Federation. p. 16.
(3) Bowles, Chester. Ideas, People and Peace. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957. pp. 64-65.

TABLE NO. 9
POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF ASIA AND OCEANIA

COUNTRY	DATE OF INDEPENDENCE	FORMER STATUS	PRESENT LEGAL STATUS
SOUTH ASIA			
CEYLON	Feb. 4, 1948	1796 - British annexed the island to the presidency of Madras, India and it became a Crown Colony in 1802.	Independent nation within the Commonwealth of Nations.
INDIA	Aug. 15, 1947	1857-1935 - a British Crown colony. 1935 - Britain gave India a Constitution providing a bicameral federal congress, with a council of states and an assembly. August 15, 1947 - Indian Independence Act. India became a self-governing member of the British Commonwealth of Nations.	Democratic Republic within the Commonwealth of Nations.
NEPAL		1923 - Britain recognized the absolute independence of Nepal. Feb. 18, 1951 - A popular government was established.	Constitutional Monarchy.
PAKISTAN	Aug. 15, 1947	August 15, 1947 - The Islamic portions of India acquired self-government with dominion status in the Commonwealth of Nations.	Republic. Member of Commonwealth of Nations.
BHUTAN		August 8, 1949 - Treaty with India, whereby Bhutan continues to receive a cash subsidy and transportation rights through India and India controls Bhutan's external relations.	Semi-independent state.
SOUTHEAST ASIA			
BURMA	Jan. 4, 1948	1885-1937 - Administered as part of British India. April 1, 1937, was made a self-governing unit of the British Commonwealth. January 4, 1948 - became an independent republic outside the British Commonwealth.	Republic
INDONESIA	Aug. 17, 1945	Formerly known as the East Indies (Netherlands). Until March 1942, Indonesia was a Netherlands overseas territory.	Republic.

(continued)

TABLE NO. 9 (Cont'd.)
POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF ASIA AND OCEANIA

COUNTRY	DATE OF INDEPENDENCE	FORMER STATUS	PRESENT LEGAL STATUS
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	July 1957	Former British Straits Settlements colony; 1948- Federation of Malaya; 1956- independent nation within the British Commonwealth. Federation of Malaysia created August 1, 1962 to include independent Malaya, semi-independent Singapore, the British colonies of North Borneo and Sarawak, and the protectorate of Brunei. Commonwealth status is expected to be formed by August 31, 1963.	Limited Constitutional Monarchy.
PHILIPPINES	July 4, 1946	1898 - Islands were ceded to the United States by the Treaty of Paris, following the Spanish-American War.	Independent Republic.
SINGAPORE	June 1959	Long a British Crown Colony, Singapore became an internally self-governing state within the Commonwealth in June 1959.	Self-governing state.
THAILAND		Until June 24, 1932, Siam was an absolute monarchy. Provisional Constitution Act established a limited monarchy.	Constitutional Monarchy.
VIET-NAM (North)		Formerly under French colonial rule, the territory of Viet-Nam is now divided almost equally between the Republic of Viet-Nam, which controls the area south of the 17th parallel, and the Communist regime of North Viet-Nam.	
REPUBLIC OF VIET-NAM (South)	Oct. 26, 1955	Since 1955, a republic under a provisional constitution act, following a referendum. October 26, 1956- a Constitution was promulgated.	Republic.
BRITISH BORNEO:			
Sarawak		In 1888 Sarawak was placed under British protection. Sarawak was ceded to the British Crown on July 1, 1946.	British Protectorate.

(continued)

TABLE NO. 9 (Cont'd.)
POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF ASIA AND OCEANIA

COUNTRY	DATE OF INDEPENDENCE	FORMER STATUS	PRESENT LEGAL STATUS
BRITISH BORNEO: (cont'd.)			
Brunei		Since 1888 a protected sultanate. April 1959- Agreement between Britain and the Sultan provided for an administration separate from that of Sarawak.	Sultanate under British protection.
North Borneo		Since 1881, under royal charter, the territory was a British protected state administered by the British North Borneo Company. 1946 - the sovereign rights transferred to the Crown.	British colony.
CAMBODIA	Nov. 9, 1953	Formerly, with Viet-Nam and Laos, comprised the associated states of French Indo-China, under French protection. 1949- by treaty, became an associated state within the French Union.	Constitutional Monarchy.
LAOS	Oct. 22, 1953	Of Thai origin; one of the three former French Indo-China states. Oct. 22, 1953- Treaty of Friendship and Association signed in Paris, whereby the Kingdom of Laos emerged as a fully independent country.	Constitutional Monarchy.
FAR EAST:			
CHINA		January 1, 1912- China became a Republic. 1937-1945 - War years with Japan. China proper came under domination of Chinese Communist armies during 1949-1950. December 8, 1949- The Nationalist government moved to Taipei.	
PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA		The People's Republic of China (Communist) was proclaimed in Peiping (Peking) September 21, 1949, by the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference under Mao Tse-tung, Communist leader.	Soviet Socialist Republic.
TAIWAN (National Republic of China)		1895-1945, Taiwan remained a Japanese colony. 1945- again came under Chinese administration. December 8, 1949- the Government of the Republic of China moved to Taipei.	Seat of National Republic of China.

(continued)

TABLE NO. 9 (Cont'd.)
POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF ASIA AND OCEANIA

COUNTRY	DATE OF INDEPENDENCE	FORMER STATUS	PRESENT LEGAL STATUS
JAPAN	April 28, 1952	Until 1945, hereditary monarchy. May 3, 1947- new constitution. Emperor gave up claims to divinity; the Diet became the sole law-making authority.	Constitutional Monarchy.
RYUKYU ISLANDS		Until 1945, a protectorate under Japan. Sept. 1951 - U.S.-Japanese peace treaty placed Ryukyus under U.S. administration.	U.S. administration.
KOREA		Gained independence from China through treaty that ended Sino-Japanese war of 1894-95. 1910- annexed to Japan. July 1945- Potsdam Conference- 38th parallel of latitude designated as line dividing Soviet and American occupation.	
South Korea	Aug. 1948	May 1948- South Koreans formed Republic of Korea. May 16, 1961- Military junta assumed both executive and legislative powers.	Independent Republic.
North Korea		May 1, 1948- Communists formed the People's Democratic Republic of Korea in North Korea.	Soviet Republic.
OCEANIA			
AUSTRALIA		Jan. 1, 1901- colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and Tasmania were federated under the name of the "Commonwealth of Australia."	Self-governing member of Commonwealth of Nations.
NEW ZEALAND		1840- By Treaty of Waitangi, the Maori chiefs ceded the sovereignty to the British Crown and the islands became a British colony. 1907- the Colony became a Dominion.	Self-governing member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

SOURCES: World Almanac and Book of Facts 1962. Published by the New York World-Telegram & The Sun.
Other Lands Other Peoples. A Country-by-Country Fact Book by Elizabeth M. Thompson. Committee on International Relations, National Education Association. Revised Second Edition, 1962.
The Statesman's Year Book 1961-62. New York: St. Martin's Press.
Van Nostrand. Atlas of the World. Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1961.
A World of Facts. Civic Education Service, 1961.

THE ECONOMIC SITUATION

It is becoming a recognized fact that theories and practices originating in the more highly developed capitalist countries of the west cannot be imposed on Asia, whose economic deficiencies have a special character. "Newspapers frequently give space to the structure of 'Five Year Plans', vast programs of industrialization which look impressive, to justify the continuance of foreign aid programs, but it is only in the more specialized journals that any real attention is paid to the performance of such types of development. There is also the understressed element of political and administrative pressures, which often override economic reality."(1)

In the Asian economy, the capitalist sector is not only small, but it is also conservative. There is little risk-taking element. "When a dynamic spirit of competition is lacking, state economic planning has to be imposed on a static economy, and cannot therefore be directed towards inciting the progress which emerges from individual effort in a free society."(2)

The whole social complex of Asian life is also a factor which conditions economic development. The excessive population growth, particularly in the rural areas; the emigration to the towns, mostly of young men whose labor would be most productive on the land; the expansion of heavy industry which demands capital investment but little in the way of labor - these problems are not solved by the introduction of aid from foreign investments, "unless that capital is specifically directed towards labor-intensive activities, i.e., activities which require comparatively little capital, but a large number of workers. In Asia, the labor saving machine is a positive menace."(3)

I. ASIAN IMBALANCE: POPULATION-PRODUCTIVITY-POTENTIAL

The countries of free Asia stretching from Pakistan to Japan contain about thirty percent of the total world population, yet they produce only about eight percent of total global output. With only a few exceptions, economic life in these nations is influenced by the grinding poverty of the great mass of the population. The U.S. National Commission for UNESCO(4) reports that the average per capita output for most of the countries was estimated to be under U.S. $100 in 1961. The output of agriculture is low, and populations are rising. The average life-span is under fifty years, as compared with

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(1) Edwardes, Michael. Asia in the Balance. Penguin Books S 204. Baltimore, Md. 1962. p. 124.
(2) Ibid., p. 124.
(3) " p 126.
(4) Turn East Towards Asia. Sixth National Conference Report, U.S. National Commission for UNESCO. San Francisco, November 6-9,1957. p. 49.

about seventy in the United States. Food consumption is only about two-thirds that of Americans, and is well below minimum desirable standards. Not much more than twenty percent of the population is able to read and write.

William B. Dale of the Stanford Research Institute comments that "until recently most Asians accepted these conditions as inevitable facts of life, but now this is changing. At all levels of society, men have become aware that given enough training and proper tools, they can exercise a large degree of control over their material environment. The old static and unchanging world has suddenly become a dynamic one." With this new awareness has come a demand that "governments provide the leadership and wherewithal to insure that the desired change occurs. For many reasons - including the traditional status and prestige of government authority in Asia, and the magnitude and urgency of the present tasks of development - many Asians insist that the power of the State must be used directly and very widely to promote industrial and economic advance."(1)

There are many impediments to progress because economic development is strongly affected by traditions, mores, and institutions. For example, Dale comments that "the joint or extended family, typical of many Asian areas, although it has been an essential part of the fabric of traditional society, seems to discourage individual incentives which are important to the process of modern economic development. Numerous institutional and social factors in many Asian areas make the process of economic growth complicated and difficult. What will be the consequences if frustration and instability result from a failure to achieve economic development rapidly enough to satisfy the new aspirations of the people in these areas of Asia?"(2)

Dr. A. Eugene Staley emphasized in the conference report(3) that "although free countries in Asia face tremendous problems of finance, human resources, and administration, they have powerful reasons to insist that their economic development sights not be lowered." He cited strong drives among Asian peoples, created by the fever for economic improvement. In particular, he stressed "the contrast between the development efforts of free India and Communist China. These two countries are using quite different methods to try to develop their economies. In India, although the Government is taking a strong leadership position, especially in basic and heavy industry, the principal approach affecting the life of the majority of citizens is one in which the Government provides leadership and technical assistance but does not coerce the population. A wide field of activity is left to private initiative and enterprise."

"In Communist China, by contrast, government control and coercion of the population are fundamental in the present development program. The Chinese are also placing much greater emphasis on heavy and strategic industry, and less emphasis on welfare, than are the Indians. India is attempting to carry out economic development within a political framework which preserves individual freedom, while Communist China has sacrificed freedom to achieve its economic aim. This basic difference is sometimes obscured by American misunder-

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(1) Turn East Towards Asia. Op.cit., p. 49.
(2) Ibid., p. 50.
(3) " p. 50.

standing of what 'socialism' really means in Asian countries such as India, and the failure to recognize that it is a very different thing from 'communism' as practiced in countries such as China."(1) Dr.Staley asserted that "it is of critical importance to the attitude of most of Asia that India succeed in the 'race' for economic and industrial growth. Yet India faces critical problems because of its shortages of resources, in a free but poor society, to carry out a relatively ambitious program."(2)

Population Growth and Economic Development

The Asian countries are confronted with the task of expanding their economies before population growth overtakes economic development. None of the countries is considered overpopulated, with the possible exception of Java in Indonesia. "Population densities in certain areas are already very high but land is available in other areas, not only for population redistribution, but for expanding population of the next few decades. With the exception of Singapore, which is predominantly urban, the majority of the working force is engaged in subsistence agriculture. As is characteristic of underdeveloped countries, the proportion of the total population economically active is relatively low Less than 40 percent are gainfully employed in all countries except Thailand, which in 1954 had 51 percent in the labor force.(3) One reason for the relatively low proportion of the population economically active is the large number of children under 15 years of age. Another factor operating in Asia is the extension of the period of formal education which limits the number of new entrants into the labor market. Nevertheless, a three to four percent annual augmentation of the labor force is anticipated.(4) "The extension of the formal education of the young places a greater economic burden on the current work force, but at the same time eases the already existing problem of unemployment. If adequate education and training can be given to more young people, the economic gains in an area woefully short of skilled workers will be great. However, unless large amounts of capital are available to develop resources, this trained personnel cannot be utilized."(5)

The following facts summarize some of the elements in the Asian economy which must be noted in any study of population and the economic situation.

1. The percentage of the population participating in economic activities varies with the age composition of the population.

2. In all areas the percentage of economically active males has been declining.

3. Formal school education beyond the age of ten years, and to some extent the earlier retirement from economic activity of persons of advanced ages in urban or industrial surroundings, influence the labor force.

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(1) Turn East Towards Asia. Op.cit., p. 51.
(2) Ibid., p. 51.
(3) International Labor Office, Yearbook of Labor Statistics. 1958. p. 8.
(4) United Nations -The Population of Southeast Asia,1950-80, 1958. p. 96.
(5) Louka, Kathryn T. The Role of Population in the Development of Southeast Asia. Population Research Project. The George Washington University, Washington,D.C. 1960. p. 7.

4. The populations of Asia gain their livelihood partly in a subsistence economy and partly in a cash economy.

Per Capita Income

Throughout the area, the per capita income appears to be growing, but very slowly, and in several countries it has failed to reach pre-World War II levels. A complex of circumstances has contributed to the slow rate of increase in per capita income. Outstanding among them are the destruction wrought by World War II and subsequent guerrilla fighting, reluctance of the West to reinvest capital, lack of savings for domestic investment, scarcity of management skills, and lack of skilled labor.(1)

A United Nations report comments that "the closest approach to a comprehensive measure of economic and social development is the per capita income..."(2) One writer (3) comments, "The most basic and alarming feature of the underdevelopment problem is the fact that in the non-Communist area the gap between the developed and the less developed countries is, generally speaking, increasing in terms of real income per head." Data prepared by Professor Louis J. Zimmerman shows that over the last half century there has been little change in real income per head in most of Asia.

TABLE No. 10

TREND OF PER CAPITA INCOME IN MAJOR AREAS, 1913-1957(4)

Area	1913	1929	1952-54	1957
North America(excl. Mexico)	$917	$1,243	$1,810	$1,868
Oceania	572	680	964	1,110
Northwestern Europe	454	528	681	790
Soviet Union (USSR)	162	178	535	750
Union of South Africa	177	221	300	318
Southeastern Europe	200	181	285	360
Latin America	170	196	260	300
Japan	85	152	184	240
Far East (excl. China and Japan)	93	106	109	115
Southeast Asia	65	68	64	67
China	50	50	50	61

Source: L.J. Zimmerman, Arme en rijke landen, Albani, The Hague, 1960, pp. 29-31.

(1) Department of State. Background - Southeast Asia. Area of Challenge, Change and Progress. Department of State Publication 6861. p. 5.

(2) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs - Report on World Social Situation. E/CN. 5/346/Rev.1 ST/SOA/42. New York, 1961, p. 38.

(3) Tinbergen, Jan. Shaping the World Economy. New York: The Twentieth Century Fund. 1962. pp. 7-8.

(4) Ibid., p. 9.

Characteristics of National Economies

It is customary to distinguish three main branches of economic activity in Asia, comprising the following sectors:

1. Agriculture, forestry and fishing (primary activities)

2. Manufactures, building and handicrafts (secondary activities)

3. Transport, communications, commerce and services (tertiary activities)

Agricultural production constitutes the most important field of economic activity in Asia. More than seventy-five percent of the population in most countries of the region is supported by agriculture, and the proportion of national income derived from agriculture is very large in all countries. The agricultural producers of the region, besides growing food for the population, also supply certain industrial raw materials for export, which are the chief source of foreign exchange with which capital goods necessary for industrialization can be imported. Improvements in agricultural production and marketing techniques are, therefore, of paramount importance. "As industrialization proceeds, the relationship between agriculture and industry in Asia will gradually change, and this shift is bound to create many serious problems affecting Asian economy as a whole."(1)

A 1959 report(2) indicates that Asia is the world's largest exporter of natural rubber, copra, quinine, kapok, rice, teak, pepper, tapioca flour,and tin. It produces in some quantity sugar, tea, coffee, tobacco, sisal, tropical fruits, essential oils, spices, natural resins and gums, oil, iron ore,and bauxite. Burma has some oil, but the only large resources discovered as yet are in Indonesia and British North Borneo. Currently, the area produces rice for its own needs and a surplus of almost four million tons for export; its rubber plantations provide the world with about ninety percent of its crude rubber; its mines provide about sixty percent of the world's tin; and it produces some eighty-four percent of the world's copra and cocoanut oil.

"It is the metals and machine sectors that have made the most rapid progress, especially in Japan where they are well-established."(3) India has increased its investment in heavy industry but the yield is not large. The production of steel is vital to all aspects of economic development and is particularly important for railroad building and the construction of industrial plants, houses, schools and hospitals.

Although the production of steel in Asia is less than seven percent of the world total, it is increasing. "In almost all Asian countries great efforts have been made in the last few years to establish an iron and steel industry where it was lacking or to expand it where it already existed."(4)

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(1)United Nations - Office of Public Information. Helping Economic Development in Asia and the Far East. The work of ECAFE. Fourth revised edition. Sales number: 60.I.3. New York. p.45.

(2)Background - Southeast Asia. Department of State Publication 6861. p. 5.

(3)United Nations-Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1961. Bangkok,1962. Sales Number: 62.II.F.1. p. 130.

(4)United Nations-Office of Public Information, Helping Economic Development in Asia and the Far East.Op.cit.,p.20.

New possibilities have been opened up by the elimination of high-grade coking coal and using low grade non-coking coal and other fuels. "The production of pig iron in the Asian countries increased from 4.94 million tons in 1950 to about 14.19 million tons in 1957, and steel production rose in the same period from 6.99 million to about 19.81 million tons."(1)

China (mainland) is the largest producer in Asia of both iron and coal. Japan's output of both has increased. Iron is now the major export of the Federation of Malaya. "The production of iron ore in Korea(South) increased from 62,867 tons in 1956 to 392,129 in 1960."(2) Since 1960 India has increased its output of coal, ranking second in the region after China.

II. LABOR SITUATION

Manpower Resources

A 1961 United Nations Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East reports that "with the exception of Japan, growth rates of population in Asian countries range from about 1.5 and 2 percent in Burma and India, to 3 percent or more per year in the Federation of Malaya, Taiwan, the Philippines and the cities of Hong Kong and Singapore. As the lower rates are primarily a reflection of high levels of mortality, the rates may be expected to increase considerably when effective measures to control mortality become more widely adopted. These trends are amply illustrated in population projections for Asian countries that have been prepared in recent years. The population is expected to grow over 70 percent in India, about 100 percent in Thailand and almost 135 percent in the Federation of Malaya between 1955 and 1980."(3)

This relatively faster increase of the population of working age has created an under-employment problem, and is one of the foremost economic problems in rural areas of Asia. The majority of the people of Asia live in rural areas and earn their living from agriculture. Often this is subsistence farming without any proper labor market where work can be exchanged for money. In practically no country but Japan has a major change in this respect been completed, notwithstanding the development in some countries of a highly efficient, commercialized plantation sector. However, the process of industrialization has now been started, or is desired everywhere, and this drive for economic development is expected to bring about major changes in the structure of the economically active population.

Labor Unions

Few if any generalizations can be made about the labor union movement in Asia because of the diversity of conditions. Many factors have a bearing on the development of labor unions in a country: the political climate, the

(1) United Nations - Office of Public Information. Helping Economic Development in Asia and the Far East. Op.cit., p. 29.

(2) Trade and Investment Guide to Korea 1962. Economic Bureau of Foreign Affairs, Republic of Korea. p. 45.

(3) United Nations. Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East. Prepared by the Secretariat of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East. Vol. XII, No.2, September 1961. p. 12.

types of industry, the economic and industrial development, the degree of freedom of association and joint action, the education of the workers. Therefore, a brief outline of the development in a number of countries will be given.

India. The earliest attempts to organize labor unions in India were made in the 1880's when a millhand's association was formed to support proposals for labor legislation. These attempts were unsuccessful, and it was not until after the close of World War I that the movement began to develop. Labor unions were established among the textile workers in Madras and Ahmedabad. In 1919 Mahatma Gandhi led the first strike. During the next two or three years, unions were organized in greater numbers in an attempt to meet the grave economic problem of the post-war era.

From 1919 to 1947 the labor union movement was an important weapon in the struggle for independence. In 1920 the All India Trade Union Congress was formed and for a number of years was dominated by Soviet-trained Indian Communists. Today there are four rival labor organizations in the country with 9,644 registered unions. Of these, 5,319 reported their membership to the government in 1959 and the total stood at 2,900,000.(1) "The most heavily unionized industries were railways; textiles; plantations; mining and quarrying; and food, beverages, and tobacco."(2)

One of the great needs of the labor movement is the education of the workers. In 1958 the Government established the General Board of Workers' Education with ten training centers in different parts of the country. The Indian Congress Party sponsors the INTUC (Indian National Trade Union Congress) which, in 1959, had 1,462,669 members. "Its closeness to the Government has in some respects been a disadvantage, because it is constrained from taking action which might embarrass the Government."(3) The INTUC is a member of the anti-Communist International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. In 1951 (the latest figures) there were 32,400,000 industrial workers (non-agricultural) in India. Thus, less than ten percent of India's industrial workers are unionized.

Pakistan. "The trade unions, which are still in a very early stage of development, are weak and ineffective."(4) The over-all trade union organization is the All Pakistan Confederation of Labor, which is affiliated with the ICFTU (International Confederation of Free Trade Unions). "In 1954 its membership was estimated as 304,513."(5) This represents less than seven percent of the industrial labor force. The leadership of the trade unions is not strong and its bargaining power is often weakened by the fact that the employers do not recognize a particular union. The unions do not have substantial funds for prolonged strikes.(6)

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(1) U.S. Department of Labor -Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with International Cooperation Administration, Office of Labor Affairs, Washington, D.C.: Labor in India - April 1961. Report No.188, p. 25.
(2) Ibid., p. 25.
(3) " p. 27.
(4) Summary of the Labor Situation in Pakistan. International Cooperation Administration, Office of Labor Affairs. Prepared by United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. August 1955. p. 5.
(5) Ibid., p. 5.
(6) See Government of Pakistan - The Second Five Year Plan (1960-65).p.378.

Burma. It is estimated that there are 150,000 workers in the kind of employment where trade union organization is possible. Of this number about 75,000 are members of unions. There are two confederations, the Trade Union Congress which claims 50,000 members and the Burma Trade Union Congress.

Thailand. There are roughly 250,000 industrial workers in Thailand and only 25,000 were reported in 1957 as members of the 136 labor unions. Following the political upheaval of 1958 the new government abolished all trade unions. "Lack of interest in union organization resulted partly from a general disinclination on the part of most Thai people to form stable groups for action programs."(1) The labor union movement can be said to be in its infancy. The bulk of the industrial workers are Chinese, and while on the one hand, their own unions were regarded with suspicion by the government, on the other, Chinese workers were excluded from membership in the Thai National Trade Union Congress. Sometimes unions are set up by political leaders in attempts to win political support of the workers.

Malaya. "The present trade unions of Malaya originated after the end of the Second World War."(2) In 1957 there were 300 unions with a total membership of 220,000. The Malayan Trade Union Council was organized in 1950, but its development has been slow.

Japan. "It was a group of Christians who established the first trade unions in Japan in 1897."(3) The U.S.Department of Labor referred to this as follows, "...Some Japanese who had visited the United States returned to Japan and became interested in promoting social reform through Christian socialist principles. They organized Japan's first trade union and the Social Democratic Party."(4)

According to the Japanese Ministry of Labor, in 1957 there were 6,606,000 members in the trade unions,(5) union strength being greatest in firms with more than 500 employees. About one third of the union members are found in the manufacturing industries.

Following Japan's surrender in 1945, General MacArthur, as Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, insisted on encouragement being given to the unionization of labor. In December 1945 the Diet passed the Trade Union Law guaranteeing the right of labor to organize and bargain collectively without interference from employers. International relations play an important part in the labor movement of Japan and sometimes have created disunity among leaders. While there are extremes at both ends, a large body favors a neutralist position in world politics. The union movement is affiliated with the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions.

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(1) United States Department of Labor -Bureau of Labor Statistics. Foreign Labor Information - Labor in Thailand. June 1959. p. 20.
(2) Summary of the Labor Situation in Malaya. International Cooperation Administration, Office of Labor Affairs. Prepared by United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. May 1958. p. 8.
(3) Takenaka, Masao (Doshisha University,Kyoto,Japan), "A Style of Creative Minority" in Church Labor Letter. No.60, December 1959. p. 4.
(4) Summary of the Labor Situation in Japan. International Cooperation Administration, Office of Labor Affairs. Prepared by United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. June 1958. p. 4.
(5) Ibid., p. 9.

South Korea. The trade union movement in South Korea is a young movement because, until the end of World War II, it was suppressed by the Japanese authorities. Inasmuch as it had no real tradition of activities and program, it has tended to be used as a political force. "...The Government has tolerated trade union activities only to the extent that they make for unity, and has vigorously repressed not only Communist or left wing activities, but also all independent leadership."(1)

Some Ways to Utilize Manpower Resources

The majority of the population in most low-income countries in Asia is becoming increasingly aware of the existence of enormous international differences in levels of living. Impatience over the slow process of catching up with the economically advanced countries is therefore mounting. In the light of a more intensive desire for improvement in the conditions of living, the present economic and social problems of the low-income countries may require a more active approach than was attempted in the developed countries at a similar stage of growth, in order to channel their impatience into productive effort. Some suggestions for utilization of manpower have been given.(2)

1) The drafting of young men for a period of national labor service would be a way of mobilizing part of the potential labor of the unemployed and the under-employed. This possibility has been discussed in Pakistan. A similar program, mainly affecting certain categories of students, has been suggested in India.

2) The community development programs are of limited value to the unemployed and severely under-employed who can least afford to offer their labor free, and who are likely to draw the least benefits from the community projects because they do not own land or other property. The means of subsistence must be provided if the entirely idle manpower is to be drawn into employment. "There is a critical shortage of skilled labor in the majority of Asian countries in spite of the over-supply of labor in general."

3) The need in the under-developed countries of Asia is to train technicians of all kinds. To some extent, a short cut to the access of necessary skills may be obtained by educating more narrowly specialized technicians than has so far been customary in most countries. One of the major differences between the approach to economic development in mainland China and India lies in mainland China's greater emphasis on the development of human resources. By 1960 mainland China claimed(3) a school attendance of 90 million at the primary level, about 1 million at the secondary, and 810,000 at the college and university level. Particularly at the college level, the emphasis is almost exclusively on technical subjects like engineering, technical management, agriculture, medicine and pure science.

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(1) Summary of the Labor Situation in South Korea. International Cooperation Administration, Office of Labor Affairs. Prepared by United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, October 1955. p. 6.

(2) United Nations. Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East. September 1961. pp. 23-25.

(3) Ibid., p. 25.

By comparison, India is sending relatively fewer children to school and appears, furthermore, to have undertaken less changes with regard to curricula. Secondary education is considered "the weakest link in the Indian education chain." Half of the children of primary school age attend school, and of these more than 20 percent continue into secondary school. This suggests that the selection process of secondary school students is not a very demanding one. Furthermore, the selection is not done "on the basis of ability, but on that of the capacity of the family to pay school fees." The great shortage of skills of all kinds makes a co-ordinated expansion of educational and training facilities of crucial importance.

4) Checks on over-urbanization may help to alleviate the burden of over-population. It is more expensive to maintain a surplus population in cities than in rural areas. Proper housing and sanitary, educational and health facilities are more costly in urban than in rural areas, and the growth of urban slums creates an acute danger of social unrest. The best way of slowing down rural-urban migration is to adopt an active program for the development of rural areas and smaller urban centers. The successive reorganization of rural areas in mainland China may be taken as indicative of the steps in this direction. A similar attempt is the development of "centers of growth" in smaller towns and villages and of "linking up the economy of villages with the growing requirements of neighboring urban areas" as discussed, for example, in the Third Five Year Plan for India.

III. INDUSTRIALIZATION

The industrialization of Asian countries is considered a necessary measure for fuller utilization of manpower, for relieving population pressure on the land, for augmenting total national production, and possibly for effecting a rise in the level of living. The presence of surplus manpower together with natural resources that are not fully exploited is considered a favorable condition for industrialization. On the other hand, a number of factors limit industrialization in Asia. Among the limiting factors which need to be considered are shortage of capital; deficiencies in skilled labor; shortage of able entrepreneurs; limitations of the domestic market; difficulty of access to foreign markets; absence sometimes of suitable production techniques; deficiencies in general economic organization and in the institutional structure of the economies; inadequate standards of health and education; cultural resistance to change; food shortages; and shortages of technical abilities in the public administration.

The pattern of industrialization which seems to be most suitable for the countries of Asia is not the Western pattern which revolved around coal and iron, where large masses of people were drawn to the vicinity of the raw material, and large plants employing great numbers of workers were established. "Industrialization in Asia depends on the promotion of a large number of small plants and cottage industries in rural areas. Such a pattern of development will be more compatible with the existing technology, will require less capital and more labor, will help overcome the difficulty of possible food shortages, and will make efficient use of seasonally idle manpower in the rural areas."(1)

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(1) United Nations - Asia and the Far East Seminar on Population. Bandung, November 21 to December 3, 1955. Op.cit., p. 20.

One writer suggests that not only the limited capital resources but the shortage and, in some cases, complete lack of certain natural resources will limit or preclude the establishment of heavy industry. The industrial pattern of the majority of the nations will necessarily be restricted to light or medium activities. Most of the present manufacturing establishments process agricultural products. Economic growth will also require the development of adequate transportation, communications and power facilities. But of basic importance is the creation of a trained labor force capable of manning newly developing industrial plants. The human resources are available and they can be trained to more effectively participate in the total development of the area."(1)

Industrialization and Trade

In the countries of Asia, foreign trade occupies a large share in the total volume of national economic transactions. In many of them, economic output is not sufficiently varied to support a high degree of self-sufficiency. The largest countries of South and East Asia (excluding China and Japan) have been troubled not only by violent short-term fluctuations in export earnings, but also by a longer-term decline in their share of the export market for their traditional export products. A major reason has been the need to divert agricultural production from export to feeding the expanding populations. "Productive capacity has not grown rapidly enough to fulfill home demand and leave a surplus for export. Meanwhile, foreign exchange needs for imports have risen steadily, not only because of the import requirements of developing programs, but also because the region now must import food."(2)

Exports-Imports. Asian countries and Oceania (excluding India and Communist China) are dependent upon basic commodity exports for 65 percent of its foreign exchange earnings. Wool is the major export item, 70 percent of which is sold to Europe and 16 percent to Japan. Europe imports over 40 percent of the rubber exports, the second largest foreign exchange earner for the region. Again, Western Europe is the principal market for the exports of this region, purchasing some 57 percent of the total in 1957. The United States and Japan took 17 and 16 percent, respectively.(3)

The pattern of Indian trade differs considerably from that of the region as a whole. Primary commodities account for only 45 percent of her exports, nearly half of which is tea. At the turn of the century India was exporting wheat. However, due to the dramatic growth of population, India has to import primary products, especially wheat and flour.

Can industrialization solve the population problem?

One means of slowing the growth of the agricultural population and relieving the pressure of numbers upon the land is to transfer workers from agriculture into other fields of employment. It is generally agreed that enlarge-

(1) Louka, Kathryn T. The Role of Population in the Development of Southeast Asia. Op.cit., p. 8.

(2) United Nations-Dept. of Economic and SocialAffairs. Report on the World Social Situation.1961. E/CN. 5/346/Rev.1 ST/SOA/42 New York 1961. p. 16.

(3) United States Foreign Policy. Compilation of Studies. Prepared under the Direction of Committee on Foreign Relations, U.S.Senate,87th Congress, 1st Session. Document No. 24. Washington 1961. p. 66.

ment of industrial and commercial sectors of the economy is essential for successful economic development of most of the under-developed countries. Japan's economic development since the beginning of the twentieth century is a striking example. Without a great expansion of industry and foreign trade, Japan could hardly have managed to feed her growing population on her slender agricultural resources.

However, it would be a mistake to dismiss the population problems of the under-developed countries on the easy assumption that they will soon be solved in this way. It is a formidable task to develop large-scale industries in a predominantly agricultural country with a low level of income and little capital, even if the country is amply endowed with such resources as coal,oil, iron ore, and other sources of energy and industrial raw material. Some economists make the point that shortage of capital retards economic development, that lack of equipment hinders not only industrialization but also the extension and improvement of agriculture. They say, for example, "to fit out all Asia with an average of $2,000 worth of machinery and tools per worker would cost an amount equal to three times the national income of the United States... and they estimate that $540 billions worth of equipment would be needed to raise the average output per worker in the major part of Asia to the level that Japan had reached before the Second World War."(1)

Sociologists, on the other hand, say that capital is not a prerequisite; that motivation, leadership and the drive from within for economic and social betterment - a "rock bottom soil method" - is needed. They state,also, that the under-developed countries can increase their savings and investments by following appropriate fiscal, customs, and financial policies, and cite Japan's experience over a period of 70 years, which "shows how a country starting with a low per capita income can save and invest in such a way as to build up a powerful industrial plant in the course of time. But this cannot be accomplished overnight. The hoe cannot be asked to produce enough both to feed its owner today and purchase a tractor tomorrow."(2)

IV. APPROACHES TO ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The idea of planning economic development on a long-term national scale has been accepted by most Asian governments, and programs worked out for that purpose have come to play a dominant part in the economic life of many Asian countries. In his message to the eighteenth session of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, held in March 1962, the Acting Secretary-General of the United Nations, U Thant, said that the "sweeping changes that have taken place in Asia during the last two decades have established the prerequisite for a concentrated effort against the old scourges of poverty and stagnation...The region is rich in natural resources, but because these have largely remained untapped it is poor in terms of national income. It is the source of many of the world's most needed primary products, but these occur in many countries of the region as a single staple export which makes economies precariously susceptible to the fluctuations of world markets and prices. There

(1) United Nations - Dept. of Social Affairs. Population Division. Population Growth and the Standard of Living in Underdeveloped Countries. Population Studies No. 20. ST/SOA/Series A/20. New York,October 1954. p. 6.

(2) Ibid., p. 6.

are excellent lines of communications running from the region to Europe, whose metropolitan powers once dominated it, but the lines of physical communications within the region, and even inside individual countries, are only now beginning to be developed. To the regional communication of ideas and information, a multiplicity of languages and scripts continues to act as a barrier,and media of information are woefully inadequate."(1)

He commented further that "in the past, the problems of Asia were often decided without a reference to its peoples and without their participation. It is no longer so. A new awakening has come to the people of Asia. They are athirst for progress, eager to overcome the disparity between their conditions and those of more developed areas. Above all, they are determined to shape their future in the way they wish it to develop. To Asians themselves, Asia was long an undiscovered continent. Now the whole region is a ferment of discovery - of new ideas, new methods, new potentialities and new horizons."(2)

Japan. Until the end of the 19th century, Japan was as underdeveloped as any country in Asia today. Japan now is an example of what other nations of Asia, with leadership, hard work, and the support of friendly countries, can achieve in relatively few years. Japan has the highest standard of living and the largest reserve of skilled manpower in all Asia, and one of the highest rates of literacy in the world. U. Alexis Johnson, Deputy Under-Secretary for Political Affairs, comments that "parallelling the growth of industry and following on the enlightened land-reform program of the postwar years, the Japanese farmer, only recently a landless peasant, is increasingly a prosperous businessman who through hard work and advanced techniques has made the 93 million Japanese virtually self-sufficient in rice."(3)

India. India is in an earlier stage of this same process of growth and progress. Now in the midst of its third 5-year plan (1961-65), the prevailing atmosphere in India is one of optimism, confidence, and hope. The First Plan was largely an effort to rehabilitate the economy, disrupted by war and partition. The Second Plan aimed at a rapid development of industries and put emphasis on setting up basic and heavy industries.

Simultaneously, tremendous strides were made in developing power. The number of towns and villages electrified doubled from 3,687 in 1950-51 to 7,400 in 1955-56 and rose to 23,000 in 1960-61 - a record expansion of 524 percent in ten years. Overall industrial production went up by 94 percent between 1950-51 and 1960-61.

In drawing up the Third Plan(4) the principal aims have been:

1. To secure an increase in national income of over five percent per annum;

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(1) United Nations Review. Vol. 9, Number 11, November 1962. United Nations Office of Public Information. p. 56.

(2) Ibid., p. 57.

(3) The Emerging Nations of Asia. U.Alexis Johnson, Deputy Under-Secretary for Political Affairs. Dept. of State Publication 7353. Far Eastern Series 111, Released April 1962, Bureau of Public Affairs. p. 6.

(4) See Third Five-Year Plan. Government of India. Planning Commission. 1961.

2. To achieve self-sufficiency in food-grains, and increase agricultural production to meet the requirements of industry and export;

3. To expand basic industries like steel, chemical industries, fuel and power, and establish machine-building capacity, so that the requirements of further industrialization can be met within a period of ten years, or so, mainly from the country's own resources;

4. To utilize to the fullest extent possible, the manpower resources of the country and to ensure a substantial expansion in employment opportunities;

5. To establish progressively greater equality of opportunity, and to bring about reduction in disparities in income and wealth and a more even distribution of economic power.

"We must bring about a balanced pattern of growth. Social welfare, health, education, transport, power, industry, agriculture, not one of these can be left out of our program of development," comment the leaders of India.

TABLE No. 11

FAR EAST: SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS FOR SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES

Country	Gross national product 1958	Agricultural share of GNP	Per Capita GNP 1958	Rate of economic growth 1955-59
	Billion dollars	Percent	Dollars	Percent
Afghanistan	.635	72	48	plus 2
Burma	1.09	43	53	" 4
Cambodia	.44	50	95	" 5
Ceylon	1.22	58	130	" 3
India	30.3	50	75	" 4
Indonesia	5.15	50	59	minus 2
Japan	27.75	22	302	plus 7
Korea,South	2.225	42	98	" 5
Laos	.1	n.a.	50	n.a.
Malaya,Fed.of	1.635	40	250	minus 1
Nepal	.451	85	51	plus 5
Pakistan	5.055	60	62	" 3
Philippines	5.23	35	218	" 5
Taiwan	1.09	31	104	" 5
Thailand	2.19	44	102	" 3
Viet-Nam, South	1.92	n.a.	152	" 2
Total or average -	86.481	...	107	plus 4
(United States)	(444.2)	(6)	(2,538)	(" 4)

Source: An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Op.cit., p. 3.

TABLE No. 12

LEADING PRODUCTS AND TRADE (Selected Countries)

Country	OUTPUT Av. Annual per Person	Leading Products (*)	TRADE % to U.S.	TRADE % from U.S.
SOUTH ASIA				
Ceylon	$131.	Tea, rubber, cocoanuts, textiles	9.7	6.9
India	$ 74.	Cotton(4), rice(2), cattle(1), tea, jute products, minerals	15.3	22.0
Nepal	$ 52.	Rice, wheat, livestock, jute, wood products	almost none	almost none
Pakistan	$ 60.	Jute, cotton, tea, rice(4), wheat, textiles	10.4	23.7
SOUTHEAST ASIA				
Burma	$ 53.	Rice, teakwood, minerals, textiles	0.9	4.4
Indonesia	$ 51.	Rubber(2), rice(5), pepper(1), quinine(1), oil, tin(2), cocoanuts	16.4	16.0
Fed. of Malaya	$265.	Rubber(3), tin(1), rice, tea, cocoanuts	12.7	3.6
Philippines	$166.	Rice, abaca, sugar products, cocoanuts, lumber, minerals	54.9	45.9
Thailand	$ 97.	Rice(6), rubber(5), tin(6), teak, cotton	24.7	16.7
Viet-Nam(Republic)	$149	Rice, rubber, corn, tea, coffee, pepper	8.5	26.0
Cambodia	$ 98.	Rice, rubber, cattle, textiles, fish, hardwoods	24.4	7.3
Laos	$ 65.	Rice, grain, teakwood, tin, coffee, livestock	6.7	6.3
FAR EAST				
Taiwan	$108	Sugar, rice, cement, paper, aluminum, tea, minerals	8.7	36.1
Japan	$350	Rice(3), textiles, metal and electric products	30.4	31.0
Korea(republic)	$ 61.	Chemicals, rice, grain, fish, tungsten	11.5	50.2
OCEANIA				
Australia	$1,424.	Wool(1), livestock, dairy products, wheat, factory goods	9.5	15.4
New Zealand	$1,480.	Dairy products, meats, wool(3), textiles, machinery chemicals	14.6	8.3

Source: A World of Facts (Civic Education Service) 1961. - (*)Numbers given show world rank.

TABLE No. 13

FOREIGN TRADE OF SELECTED COUNTRIES OF ASIA

(Value in millions of U.S.Dollars)

Country	EXPORTS			IMPORTS		
	1951	1955	1960	1951	1955	1960
JAPAN	1,355	2,011	4,055	2,044	2,471	4,491
BURMA	209	227	226	138	181	260
CEYLON	400	407	385	328	307	412
INDIA	1,646	1,276	1,331	1,794	1,414	2,258
PAKISTAN	763	401	393	549	290	654
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	1,104	774	956	611	504	703
SINGAPORE	1,576	1,101	1,136	1,642	1,262	1,332
SARAWAK	165	156	159	125	144	138
BRUNEI	92	99	88	15	31	22
NORTH BORNEO	40	34	73	23	29	64
HONG KONG	780	444	689	856	651	1,026
CHINA (Taiwan)	102	123	164	145	201	297
CAMBODIA)		40	70	)	48	95
LAOS)	135(a)	1	1	) 304(a)	19	12
VIET-NAM (Republic))		69	86	)	263	240
INDONESIA	1,292	946	840	873	630	574
KOREA (Republic)	11	18	32	76	341	329
PHILIPPINES	427	401	560	489	548	604
THAILAND	367	335	410	272	334	453
NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA	4	8	7	12	24	23
RYUKYU ISLANDS	1	13	29	16	63	133
AUSTRALIA	2,039	1,747	1,962	2,106	1,932	2,367
NEW ZEALAND	692	724	846	596	804	786

(a) Data for year 1951 refers to former Indochina.

Source: United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Statistical Yearbook 1961. Sales No.: 62.XVII.I. New York, 1961. Table No. 149, p. 412.

TABLE No. 14

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING (ALL ITEMS)
(1953 - 100)

Country	1956	1958	1960	1961
BURMA: Rangoon	106	108	111	113
CAMBODIA: Phnom-Penh	127	135	153	...
CEYLON: Colombo	99	103	100	104
CHINA: Taipei	123	134	181	189
FED. OF MALAYA: (all races)	90	94	90	...
HONG KONG	97	96	99	99
INDIA	99	109	119	121
INDONESIA: Djakarta	...	...	145	...
JAPAN (all cities)	106	109	114	124
KOREA: Seoul	284	339	391	404
LAOS: Vientiane	142	187	194	...
PAKISTAN: Karachi	97	110	114	117
PHILIPPINES: Manila	100	105	111	113
SINGAPORE	92	92	91	...
THAILAND: Bangkok	111	125	121	130
VIET-NAM: Saigon	139	130	133	142

Notes: All figures refer to working class expenditures except for the following countries: Burma, low and middle income group of households; China(Taiwan), public servants prior to 1959, beginning 1959, major city consumers' prices; Hong Kong, clerical and technical workers; Indonesia, government employees; Japan, urban population; Republic of Korea, salaried workers and wage earners; Singapore, low income clerks and laborers; Thailand, low salaried workers and civil servants.

United Nations - Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1961. Sales Number: 62.II.F1. Bangkok, March 1962. p. 205.

THE AGRARIAN SITUATION

While Asia has fifty-three percent of the world's population, it accounts for only thirty-two percent of the agricultural products as a whole, although it produces ninety percent of certain items such as rice, tea, jute, spices and rubber.(1)

With the exception of Japan, the bulk of the population of the Asian countries is engaged in agriculture. "Estimates of the percentage of total population that is dependent upon agriculture as its major or sole source of income run as high as ninety percent for some countries. In no country is the percentage less than fifty."(2) Most of the light industry is related to the processing of agricultural products and these, in one form or another, account for two kinds of the foreign exchange earned by trade. Taking the area as a whole, rubber and tea are the largest single export commodities, rice being in third place. The United States is the largest customer; it is "both the largest market for, and the leading supplier of, agricultural commodities to the Far East,"(3) rubber and sugar accounting for half of the exports from Asia.

Rice, which accounts for forty percent of all agricultural products in the area, is the main crop in most of the countries, India, Pakistan and Japan being the heaviest producers. Malaya is the leading producer of rubber, with Indonesia following closely. Tea is the main crop in Ceylon, but India produces a larger quantity.

Grains (especially wheat), sugar, roots and tubers make up sixty-seven percent of the agricultural production. In three countries, Japan,Taiwan and South Korea, where population is extremely dense, food production (rather than non-food crops) absorbs ninety-four percent or more of the total agricultural resources. Food production, as compared with non-food production, comprises the bulk of agricultural output also in Burma, Indonesia,Pakistan, Philippines and South Viet-Nam. Ceylon and Malaya are the two countries which concentrate on non-food production. Burma, Thailand and South Viet-Nam rely heavily on a single crop, namely, rice. "Physical factors and the man-land ratio are undoubtedly the principal determinants of the production pattern."(4)

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(1) United States Department of Agriculture. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Foreign Agricultural Economic Report No. 2. Economic Research Service, Regional Analysis Division. Nov.1961. p. 1.

(2) Neff, Kenneth L. "Education and the Forces of Change" in International Development Review. Vol. IV, No. 1, March 1962. Washington,D.C.: The Society for International Development. p. 22.

(3) U.S.Dept. of Agriculture. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Op.cit., p. 2.

(4) Ibid., p. 19.

Among the physical determinants, climate and soil are the main ones. Rice grows in lands enjoying a warm, humid, monsoon climate, which is unfavorable for the cultivation of wheat and corn. Rubber and cocoanuts require all-year constant, warm temperatures and steady rainfall. Ceylon, Indonesia, the Philippines and Malaya possess such a climate. Tea, on the other hand, grows best on the hillside slopes in Ceylon and Eastern India.

The man-land ratio involves population pressure which necessitates the use of crops with high caloric yield and intense use of labor. As far as labor is concerned, this is true in crops such as tea, silk and rice. Whereas in other parts of the world livestock is an important source of food, in Asia this is not the case. Animals, such as buffalo and cattle, are used for tilling the fields and as a source of power in transportation, lifting water for irrigation, and so on. "In India, the Hindu religion forbids the slaughter of cattle. Some Buddhist countries also adhere to this custom, although somewhat less stringently."(1)

Agricultural Production

The United Nations Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East for 1961 reports that agriculture continues to absorb a major proportion of the work force. However, "agricultural expansion has upper limits imposed by such natural factors as land and climate, manufacturing offers opportunities for potentially unlimited expansion. This does not mean that agriculture in any of the underdeveloped countries of the region has come anywhere near the maximum physical or economic potentials; indeed, the product, per unit both of land and of labor, is at present so small in these countries that there is scope for considerable expansion of productivity given better incentives, the adoption of improved techniques, reorganization of inputs, and more capital."(2) (See TABLE No. 15 - INDICES OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION 1952-53 - 1954-55 - 1957-58 - 1959-60). Taking three-year averages - 1952-1954 and 1957-1959 as indicated in this table, "Japanese agricultural production recorded an average rise of five percent per annum during the five-year span separating the two time periods. Taiwan comes next with a four percent increase. At the other end of the scale, stagnation seems to have occurred in the agricultural economies of Burma and Pakistan, both of which have experienced marketing difficulties for their principal export crops - rice and jute, respectively. Burma was confronted with increasing rice inventories, and Pakistan had to curb jute production to maintain prices."(3)

Agricultural Land

"Mainland China, by far the largest country in terms of both total land area and population, has less cultivated land than India."(4) In terms of cultivated land, India has 337 million acres, while China has 227 million.

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(1) United States Department of Agriculture. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Op.cit., p. 21.

(2) United Nations - Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1961. Sales Number: 62.II.F.1. Bangkok, March 1962. pp. 12-13.

(3) Ibid., p. 13.

(4) United States Department of Agriculture. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Op.cit., p. 9.

The Asian countries having the highest per capita agricultural land are Thailand (.87 acres); India (.84 acres); Malaya (.82 acres). "Burma, with twenty-three million cultivated acres, has nearly double the cultivated area of Japan, but only one-fourth of the people to support. Three countries - Japan with one-seventh of an acre per person, and South Korea and Taiwan with just over one-fifth acre per capita - have very low per capita land availabilities, but on the other hand have attained the highest per capita production for the region."(1) (For complete figures, see TABLE No.16 FAR EAST: SELECTED STATISTICS ON AGRICULTURAL LAND, by country,1959).

The pattern of land ownership has altered considerably since World War II. In mainland China, numerous small holdings have been consolidated into communes. In other Asian countries, the number of holdings and the number of owners have increased. Some countries have many more farms than the United States, because in the latter the holdings are much larger. India has 62 million farms averaging 5.4 acres each, Indonesia has 13.4 million farms with an average of 3.3 acres, Pakistan has 13.4 million farms with an average of 4.2 acres, and the United States has only 3.7 million farms, but the average is 95 acres. Even Japan, a highly industrialized country, by Asian standards, and smaller in area than California, has almost twice as many farms as the United States, but Japanese farms average only 2.1 acres each. "There are, of course, great variations in the intensity of land use, depending on whether irrigation or dry farming, double cropping, single cropping or shifting agriculture is being practiced."(2)

See TABLE No. 16 - FAR EAST: SELECTED STATISTICS ON AGRICULTURAL LAND, by country, 1959

TABLE No. 17 - FAR EAST: NUMBER AND AVERAGE SIZE OF FARMS, by country, 1959

Population and Food

Perhaps the most immediate problem which accompanies a rapid increase in population is the failure of the food supply to keep up with the increasing numbers. "The Far East is unique among the regions of the world in that it is the only major region with both a high rate of growth and an already dense population. Population increases two percent per year, and in order to maintain the currently low consumption levels, production must consistently increase at least two percent annually."(3)

The seriousness of the situation arises from a number of factors, but chief among them is that in comparison with the underpopulated continents of

(1) U.S.Dept. of Agriculture. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Op.cit., p. 9.

(2) United Nations - Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs. The Population of South-East Asia (Including Ceylon and China: Taiwan) 1950-1980. Report III, Future Population Estimates by Sex and Age. Population Studies No. 30. ST/SOA/Series A/30. New York, 1958, p. 41.

(3) United States Department of Agriculture. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Op.cit., p. 45.

Africa and Latin America, "the Far East, with centuries of habitation and the accompanying relentless exploitation of land, has little additional land available for reclamation."(1) Thus it can be said that Asia is "the world's chief problem area as regards food. Once a net exporter of grain, it has become a large net importer since the second World War...Although food production has increased since the immediate post-war period, output per capita is still below pre-war levels, strikingly so in several countries."(2)

The overall problem, obviously, is the ratio of food production (or food supplies) to population growth for the years ahead. "In terms of simple arithmetic, it seems evident that the problem of achieving the needed increases in food production during the next decades would be made easier, and the risk of failures would be diminished, if the population were to increase less than is indicated by the projections of present trends for the economically less developed regions of the world."(3) However, the problem is not simply a mathematical one, for the "equation of food and mouths" is affected by many factors of an economic, social or political order.

One school of thought contends that the only solution lies in the reduction of the birth rate, since mortality control is on the increase, and the necessary increase in food production or food supply is not anticipated. Another school believes that economic growth can meet the needs of the growing population.

The classical example in Asia of the reduction in population growth rate is Japan. "The birth rate in Japan dropped from 30.1 per 1,000 population in 1945-49 to only 17.2 per 1,000 in 1957. As the death rate dropped during the period from 17 to 8 per 1,000, the net result was to bring the annual rate of natural increase of the population down from 1.3 percent to 0.9 percent... In Japan's case the movement to limit births was greatly facilitated by the comparatively high degree of industrialization and economic development of the country, and the high level of education of the people, in comparison with other countries in Asia."(4)

Family planning activities are supported, although not sponsored directly, by the governments of Japan, Ceylon, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore, and in Malaya and Thailand by private organizations.(5)

India. In some countries, more particularly in India and China, the issue of population and food supply is a very serious one. The Report of the Agricultural Production Team, sponsored by the Ford Foundation in 1958 concluded that, "India is facing a crisis in food production. More specifically, it is a crisis in food-grain production, because food grains comprise two-thirds of the caloric intake of the average Indian...Seven million persons per year have been added during the Second Plan Period. Ten million per year will probably be added during the period of the Third Plan ending 1966. Although

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(1) United States Dept. of Agriculture. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Op.cit., p. 47

(2) United Nations - Office of Public Information. Population and Food Supply. Freedom from Hunger Campaign- Basic Study No.7. Sales No.: 62.I.22. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). p. 32.

(3) Ibid., p. 43.

(4) Ibid., p. 47.

(5) Ibid., p. 47.

there is considerable emphasis on family planning in India, no appreciable slowing down of population growth may be expected during the Third Plan Period."(1)

One of the crucial issues is whether the production of food grain can be increased year by year. The Agricultural Production Team considered 1949-50 as a base year, in which 58 million tons of food grain were produced. To keep pace with the population increase this production must grow at the rate of 8.2 percent annually. By 1965-66 the team estimates that its food grain production should reach 110 million tons, but according to prediction it will only amount to 80 million tons. It is believed that "this target cannot be realized unless an all-out emergency program is undertaken and adequate resources are made available."(2) By 1966, the end of the Third Plan Period of the Agricultural Production Team, the population of India will have reached 480 million, compared with 360 million in 1951, at the beginning of the First Plan Period.

Recommendations made to the Government of India include land reform; legislation to provide security of land tenure; cooperative farming and land use; extension of credit, especially to small farmers, soil and water conservation; multiplication and distribution of improved seeds; better marketing facilities; intensified use of mass media in support of educational programs; extension work and community development; research and evaluation. The program envisaged by the Indian Government is part of a vast and far-reaching plan of development for the whole country and Indians are optimistic about achieving some of the goals. "The basic objective of India's development must necessarily be to provide the masses of the Indian people the opportunity to lead a good life."(3)

China. The other large Asian country where the food-population equation creates critical conditions is China. "The crux of mainland China's economic difficulties lies in agriculture, which has been, and will long continue to be, the cornerstone of the economy. It still absorbs three-quarters of the labor force, which has to produce food both for its own consumption and for that of the remaining quarter engaged in other production."(4) As in India, the main problem is in the low-productivity-high-population growth equation. However, in the case of China, there ia an additional factor, as the area is subject to natural calamities. From the year 108 B.C. to 1911 A.D., it has been ascertained from historical records that there were 1,828 famines in China, that is, almost one every year.

The principal diet in China is made up of cereals, supplemented by other items. It is estimated that the average Chinese needs 2,000 calories a day, and that this is usually made up by 1,500 from grain and 500 from the other foods. "To provide 700 million people with 1,500 calories in cereals every day requires a gross annual crop of about 180 million metric tons of grain or its equivalent in potatoes and soya beans."(5)

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(1) Report on India's Food Crisis and Steps to Meet It. Issued by the Government of India, April 1959. p. 11.
(2) Ibid., p. 13.
(3) Government of India - Planning Commission. Third Five-Year Plan.1961.p.1.
(4) United Nations -Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1961. Sales Number: 62.II.F.1. Bangkok,March 1962. p. 98.
(5) Snow, Edgar. "Facts about Food in China" in Monthly Review. Vol.14,No.7. November 1962. p. 350.

The 1960 grain harvest dropped to about 150 million tons, which is nearly twenty percent less than the minimum required that year, and this reduction was largely, though not entirely, due to weather conditions. Large areas in the north of China had no rain for between 200 and 300 days, and in many places the rainless period was followed by unprecedented floods. For three successive years, beginning with 1959, the grain harvest was poor, and the effects were widespread, although it should be added that "but for water conservancy measures of the past decade, the natural calamities of 1959-61 would have had catastrophic effects."(1)

Besides natural calamities, other factors seem to have affected the harvest in recent years. For generations the Chinese peasant worked voluntarily and independently, and relied on his own efforts largely. With the rapid change from individual effort to collective labor, from an individual homestead to a cooperative and later a commune, his incentive was weakened.

The Commune system grew out of the agricultural cooperative and was a community development. Early in 1958 most of the 500 million Chinese peasants were organized in 745,000 cooperatives, but at the end of that year most of them had merged into 26,000 communes, each with an average membership of 160 families. "The compulsion of collective life, long hours of work, management problems and other accompaniments of rural socialization appear to have weakened incentives and to have led to inefficient use of labor and other productive resources. All this, added to natural calamities, caused substantial setbacks in agriculture."(2)

To meet this crisis, the government took several steps. It reversed its policy of giving priority to industry over agriculture; it began heavy grain importation from Australia and Canada; it introduced an equitable rationing system for the first time in China's history. "Remarkably, there is almost no evidence to date of mass starvation, as in traditional China; the available food is spread, however thinly, over the entire population."(3) "Sizable quantities of food are also being sent to relatives on the mainland by the three million Chinese inhabitants of Hong Kong. During most of last year(1961) an average of a million or more two-pound packages monthly were mailed through the Hong Kong Post Office, and as much or more through other channels as well."(4)

In the five-year period from 1958-1963, the population of China will have increased more than the entire population of Great Britain. To feed this vast population, China will need a minimum production annually of 200 million tons of grain, with a corresponding increase each year, unless the population growth can be slowed down considerably as in Japan.

Karl Sax, writing on the subject of "Population Explosion" presents a paradox. "It has already been pointed out that no country has made substantial economic progress until about half of the working population has been shifted from agriculture to industry...The people of Asia, with three-fourths of the

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(1) United Nations. Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1961. Op.cit.,p.98.
(2) Ibid., p. 98.
(3) Barnett, A.Doak. "Communist China-Continuing Revolution". Headline Series. Foreign Policy Association, Number 153. May-June 1962. p. 35.
(4) Ibid., p. 36.

population engaged in food production, have insufficient food...Paradoxical as it may seem,the higher the proportion of people engaged in agriculture, the poorer is the diet of the population..."(1)

He presents some interesting facts regarding the possibility of increased food supply. "No country of eastern Asia has as much as one acre of arable land per capita, but in areas where two crops can be grown each year less land is needed. Japan with .15 acres per person has been able to provide its population an average of 2,150 calories per person per day only by importing about a fifth of its food and by developing a fishing industry which furnishes about seventy pounds of fish per capita each year. With very high yields per acre, Japan could probably provide a 5,000 original-calorie diet on .4 acres per capita, but perhaps at the cost of excessive labor. China, with about half an acre per person, might be able to assure adequate diets for the present population, but not for many more; and little additional land can be brought into cultivation without excessive costs. India and Pakistan have about .8 acres of cultivated land per capita, but they, too would be fortunate if they could assure good diets for present populations. Java, with very fertile land, has difficulty in providing adequate food with about half an acre per capita."(2)

See TABLE No. 18 - FAR EAST: SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS by Country and Commodity, 1958 (Million dollars).

TABLE No. 19 - SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL AGRICULTURAL IMPORTS by Country and Commodity, 1958 (Million dollars).

Agriculture and the Economy

Agricultural improvement is one part of a comprehensive plan for the development of India, for example, and must be viewed in its relationship to economic and industrial expansion. Because of the inter-relatedness of the rural economy and the industrial or urban economy, most Asian governments are convinced that agricultural improvement on a vast scale is of paramount importance in the total economy. The fact that many rural people in Asia are migrating to the cities does not diminish the importance of the rural economy, but rather increases it. "The obstacles to be overcome are tremendous - an annual increase of six to seven million more mouths to feed, eighty percent of the population engaged in agriculture which cannot support them, and a young industry that cannot absorb the excess."(3)

There is a growing realization that, valuable as programs and development planning are, there must be a deeper understanding of the human factor. "The decisive battle for the future...will be fought in the village, among the peasants who make up the majority of the population."(4) Some changes are taking place in the typical Asian village, but these are very slow and the barriers to progress are still great. "First, there is little sense of com-

(1) Sax, Karl. "The Population Explosion". Headline Series: Foreign Policy Association, Number 120, November-December 1956. p. 35.
(2) Ibid., p. 30.
(3) Devanandan, P.D. and Thomas, M.M (ed.) Christian Participation in Nation-Building. Social Concerns Series No. 9. Bangalore: The National Christian Council of India and The Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society, 1960. p. 71.
(4) Edwardes, Michael. Asia in the Balance. Baltimore,Md.: Penguin Books. 1962. p. 169.

munity in the village; loyalty is to local caste rather than to some cooperative image. Secondly, there is the long-standing tradition that the responsibility for initiating projects lies with authority outside the village... Thirdly, the villager does not cooperate because changes seem to do violence to long-standing methods of husbandry...Fourthly, education which would help to take the village out of the web of traditional ideas only sends him away from the village to better opportunities in the town. And lastly, planning experts are far too remote from the psychology of the village."(1)

Rural Community Development

Through rural community development programs, it is possible to create a belief among villagers that conditions can be improved with local initiative and coordinated efforts. The largest program is that of India. Beginning in 1946, the pattern consisted of grouping a hundred villages into a block with a development officer and a team of extension workers to advise and supervise multiple-purpose village-level workers. "By April 1960 it was estimated that 380,000 of 556,000 census villages, with a total population of some 192 million had been included in community development blocks."(2)

In Pakistan, the Pakistan Village Agricultural and Industrial Development Program covers more than 27,000 villages, and is the second largest program of its kind in the world.(3)

In 1947 the Department of Rural Development and Cottage Industries was established in Ceylon and it now has 7,000 rural development societies throughout the island. In addition, more than 3,000 women's societies operate in the villages.

In the Philippines, the Community Development Planning Council was created in 1956 and is now at work in 25,700 barrios or neighborhoods, and similar organizations have been formed in Burma, Thailand and Korea.

"Most of the community development programs suffer from one or more organizational or administrative weaknesses, such as inadequate coordination of effort, a lag in training programs...a tendency to impose too many decisions on the villagers from above. On the other hand, an outstanding sign of progress on the organizational and administrative front is the effort...to break away from rigid methods destructive of local initiative and to strengthen planning from below."(4)

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(1) Edwardes, Michael. Op.cit., pp. 174-75.
(2) United Nations. Community Development and Economic Development. Part I. A Study of the Contribution of Rural Community Development Programmes to National Economic Development in Asia and the Far East. E/CN.11/540. Sales Number: 60.II.F.6. Bangkok, 1960. p. 5.
(3) See The Second Five Year Plan (1960-65), Government of Pakistan Planning Commission, Karachi: 1960. Also, Pakistan- 1960-61. Pakistan Publications, Karachi. October 1961.
(4) United Nations. Community Development and Economic Development. Part I. Op.cit., p. 107.

Agrarian Reform

The agrarian problems of Asia can be summed up as follows: "high pressure of population on the land in some countries, absentee landlordism,again in some countries, large estates and plantations, low social status for some classes, insecurity of tenancy and prevailing poverty in most countries."(1)

Agrarian reform measures have been pursued in recent years with varying degrees of success. "The West Pakistan Consolidation of Holdings Ordinance was promulgated in 1960. As a result of the good work of the Commission in West Pakistan, the creation of a Land Reforms Commission has also been recommended for East Pakistan by the Food and Agricultural Commission set up by the Government."(2)

In India the principles of agrarian reform were laid down in the First Five-Year Plan. The implementation of these is the responsibility of the individual states rather than the central government, and different methods have been followed. "The principle of a ceiling on individual land holdings has been accepted by all States, although the necessary legislation has yet to be passed in some of them."(3)

In Ceylon, agriculture is of two types, plantations in the highlands where rubber, tea and cocoanuts are produced for export; and subsistence farming. In the latter type the holdings are fragmented and rents are exorbitant. Large estates are being bought from foreign companies, and the government enacted the Tea and Rubber Estates (Control of Fragmentation) Act in 1958. The Paddy Lands Act of 1958 provides for the control of rents, security of tenure and other measures benefitting the small farmer.

In Burma, a Land Nationalization Act was passed in 1953 and was suspended five years later. While it was operative, some land was taken over by the government and distributed among tenants without sufficient lands.

"The land problem in Malaya is characterized by economic rivalry between Malays and Chinese."(4) About forty percent of land under rubber is in small holdings with the average Chinese holdings being seven hectares, compared with 1.5 for the Malays. The fragmentation of land is a serious problem in the rubber industry and the government finds it difficult to enact adequate legislation.

In Indonesia, there is a large number of uneconomic subsistence farms. In Java, for example, 89.5 percent of the holdings were less than one hectare. An agrarian law passed in 1961 would provide every family with a minimum of two hectares of land.

In the Philippines, more than fifty percent of the farms are operated by their owners, and farm tenancy is 37 percent of the total number of farms.

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(1) United Nations - Economic and Social Council. Progress in Land Reform. Third Report. April 1962. E/3603. p. 57.

(2) Ibid., p. 59.

(3) Ibid., p. 59.

(4) Ibid., p. 63.

Note: One hectare equals 2.471 acres.

"The Land Reform Act of 1955 was designed to establish and distribute as many family-size farms to as many landless citizens as possible,"(1) but progress has been slow, due to lack of funds.

In Japan, agrarian reform has contributed substantially to the increase in productivity. An important factor has been the use of small types of equipment such as pumping machines and tractors, as well as the utilization of chemical fertilizers in an intensive way. Large scale projects have improved irrigation and drainage and double-cropping has been made possible. A government loan program has also stimulated production. One of the chief problems in agriculture is the small size of the average holding, namely, two acres.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

Technical assistance is the term given to aid of many different kinds rendered by specialized agencies. Another name for it is International Technical Cooperation. There is multilateral technical assistance under the United Nations, and there is the bilateral approach made by the United States and the Sino-Soviet bloc.(2)

The U.N. program is known as the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance (UNEPTA) in which seven specialized agencies (such as F.A.O., W.H.O. and UNESCO) participate.

The underlying concern of technical assistance programs is the eradication, or at least the mitigation of hunger, poverty, disease and ignorance. "Operating modestly...the multilateral U.N. Technical Assistance Program has set out to tackle enormous problems - rampant disease, mass illiteracy, low crop-yields."(3)

Current literature on technical assistance programs emphasizes the fact that they are by no means "give away" programs. "Recipient governments not only have to want and to request aid, but they have to put up matching funds in national currencies to cover local costs, in this way furnishing, on the average, three out of every four dollars of over-all expense."(4) Also it must be noted that the emphasis in these programs is on the transfer of skills and knowledge, and not merely of funds. "The principal resources of technical and professional skills available to the governments of the developing countries are in their own trained nationals. The technical assistance programs, bilateral and multilateral, can only fill the gaps or broaden the base of these indigenous resources, or help to energize and sup-

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(1) United Nations - Economic and Social Council -Progress in Land Reform. Op.cit., p. 65.

(2) For details of the bilateral approach, see "The United States Point Four Program - A Bilateral Approach" by Rollin S.Atwood (pp.34-37) and "Sino-Soviet Bloc Technical Assistance - Another Bilateral Approach" by Waldemar A.Nielsen and Zoran S.Hodjera (pp. 40-49) in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science -Vol.323, May 1959.

(3) Murden, Forrest D."Underdeveloped Lands - 'Revolution of Rising Expectations' " - Headline Series 119,Foreign Policy Association, September-October 1956. p. 32.

(4) Ibid.,p. 28.

port them."(1)

The Colombo Plan for Co-operative Economic Development in South and Southeast Asia, which was formulated at the Commonwealth Foreign Ministers Meeting in Ceylon in 1950, aims at raising the standard of living in Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, Malaya, India, Indonesia,Laos,Philippines,Sarawak, Singapore, Thailand and Viet-Nam. The plan is bilateral in operation, each nation preparing its own development plan. Countries in the region, such as India, provide aid to members, although the principal aid comes from Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom and the United States.

"Colombo Plan members in the area receive both economic aid and technical assistance. Capital aid takes the form of grants and loans for national development projects. Technical assistance...consists of specialized equipment;...the services of experts and technicians in agriculture, industry, energy and welfare activities; and the training of students from the area in advanced technology."(2) "The Colombo Plan has put much more emphasis on training than has either the United Nations or United States bilateral programs."(3)

In attempting to assess the progress made as a result of technical assistance programs, there seem to be differing criteria.(4) "For the Americans it may be true that the change is painfully slow...But for the Asians it has been gratifyingly swift...Americans tend to speak of that particular level of progress with which they are most intimately involved: technical change. Asians on the other hand, speak of that which touches them most closely: social change."(5) The social changes taking place in Asia as a result of these programs are an important by-product, for they introduce new ideas and create new attitudes and these can produce new hope for improvement and better living.

Although the broad pattern of the inflow of official assistance to the underdeveloped countries of the region has a certain uniformity, the 1961 United Nations Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East indicates that "there have been marked disparities between countries. The extent of per capita official assistance has varied considerably, and it is difficult to explain such disparity in terms of per capita income levels or of economic absorptive capacity of the receiving countries. Undoubtedly, immediate political and strategic, rather than long-term economic, considerations have dominated the distributions, not only of military, but also of economic assistance from abroad."(6)

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(1) Goldschmidt, Arthur. "Program Planning and Development" in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Op.cit., p. 51.

(2) Intercom. Focus on Southeast Asia. January 1961. Volume 2,No. 9. Foreign Policy Association -World Affairs Center. pp. 12-13.

(3) Egger, Rowland. "Financing Technical Cooperation" in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Op.cit., p. 85.

(4) For a summary of objections made for technical assistance activities, see Shaping the World Economy by Jan Tinbergen. New York: The Twentieth Century Fund. 1962. pp. 236-237.

(5) Streit, Peggy and Pierce. "No, It is Not Money Down the Drain", in The New York Times Magazine, August 28,1960, p. 64.

(6) United Nations - Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1961. Op.cit., p. 49.

This same Economic Survey makes the observation that "foreign aid has provided the crucial margin required to tide over balance of payments difficulties. It has taken the burden of military commitments substantially off the shoulders of Taiwan, South Korea, Laos and South Viet-Nam. It has staved off food crises in India, and alleviated in Pakistan the situation arising from a secular fall in the terms of trade, thus freeing foreign exchange in both countries for spending on developmental imports. It has made possible productive investments in broad fields of public and private endeavor in Thailand and the Philippines, and has assisted specific projects such as steel mills in India, dams in Taiwan and Thailand, or more general services such as agricultural extension or building of roads. As a result, almost all countries have been able to maintain or raise their levels of living and, in some cases, the momentum of growth without having to demand a fully proportionate reduction of consumption."(1) (See TABLE No. 20-INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC AID TO UNDER-DEVELOPED COUNTRIES 1960 (Million U.S.Dollars)).

AGRICULTURAL RURAL MISSIONS*

The contribution of the Protestant churches in rural missions programs and institutions in Asia has been outstanding. Begun, in some instances by a single denomination, the tendency is for them to become interdenominational as time goes on.

The India Village Service and Allahabad Agricultural Institute have attracted nation-wide attention in India. The former helped provide the pattern for the government's community development program.

There was recognition of the great need for rural missions right at the beginning of the missionary era in Asia. In 1794 William Carey, the great Bible scholar and missionary, wrote home from India, "Send me yearly the best garden and fruit seeds. Send also implements of husbandry, sickles, and ploughwheels. Those we teach are hungry. Many starve." So began rural reconstruction, now popularly called "community development."

Today there are over one hundred full-time professionally qualified rural workers, both missionaries and nationals, distributed as follows:

India	27	New Guinea	4
Pakistan(East and West)	9	Okinawa	2
Philippine Islands	22	Burma	4
Thailand	7	Korea	12
Oceania	5	Japan	9

The work varies from country to country according to circumstances. In India there are four areas of special emphasis among rural workers.

1) Providing rural training courses in theological seminaries and Bible schools, so as to enable village pastors to minister more helpfully, and communicate the Gospel more effectively in the villages.

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(1) United Nations - Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1961. Op.cit., p. 49.

* This section is based on a statement by Ira W. Moomaw, Secretary of Agricultural Missions,Inc.

2) Rural Service Centers. Centers vary as to staff and facilities, from those having a relatively complete international staff and permanent buildings, to a small one or two-room building by the village roadside. Their one purpose is to make the "all of life approach" to the needs of the people, health, agriculture, literacy, spiritual nurture.

3) Extension Services. In India and the Philippines especially, church-supported "village level workers", are each assigned to a circle of from five to fifteen villages, as "colleagues" who work in cooperation with pastors and village people. The "village level worker" has no center or institution from which he works. Rather, he lives in one of his villages and visits the others, travelling on foot or bicycle. He is trained in simple skills, such as literacy methods, poultry and crop improvements, home sanitation and the use of insecticides and fertilizers.

4) Special Institutions. Two first-rate agricultural colleges are operated by the churches.

a) Allahabad Agricultural Institute, which gives a B.S. degree in agriculture and home economics.

b) Central Philippine University, which gives a B.Sc. degree in agriculture, with special emphasis on extension education and agronomy.

Rural Training Centers

In Tsurukawa, Japan, a rural seminary offers three years of seminary training, with field work and rural training featured at the full seminary level. Since 1959 the East Asia Rural Training Programme has been developing in Tsurukawa to help the training of rural leaders, inviting students from the countries of Southeast Asia with the support of the East Asia Christian Conference.

The Rural Training Center in Taejon, Korea offers to future rural workers a one-year course in rural reconstruction. Many other high schools and teacher training schools like United Christian Schools, Jullundur, India; Methodist Secondary School, Raiwind, Pakistan; Vocational Training College, Anklesvar, India, offer thorough courses in agriculture and rural reconstruction.

Some Recent Developments

Revolving loan funds, especially in Pakistan and India, ranging from $250 to $6,000, are supplied by some mission boards in the west. The funds are administered by local committees, and loans for emergency needs, not exceeding $60 per individual, are made to those who, because of their lack of property or security, could not get help elsewhere.

The Bone Meal Cooperative near Raipur, India, has helped many Christian farmers to secure a bone crusher and vats for the processing of bodies of dead cattle into tankage for poultry feed and bone meal for fertilizer. This project, nicknamed "from bones to bread" is valued highly, since it takes materials that would be wasted, and prepares products that are useful in food production.

Other forms of cooperatives are sponsored by churches and missions for furnishing credit, marketing of eggs, cloth and vegetables. The newest project is a food canning plant, operated at Taejon,Korea. This produces a market for fruits and vegetables brought in from surrounding farms, and makes available canned food at lower prices for use during the winter.

Bible Schools and Seminaries in Asia are awakening to the need for supplying special training in rural reconstruction for all prospective village pastors. Serampore Theological Seminary, the accrediting agency for all India, took the lead in 1961 in calling a conference of representatives from all seminaries and Bible schools in India to consider next steps.

In accordance with policy established by the East Asia Christian Conference[1] of Asian churches exchanging fraternal workers with one another, the United Church of Christ in Japan sent two specialists in rural work to India at the invitation of the churches there.

TABLE No. 15 [2]

INDICES OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

(1952/53-1956/57 = 100)

Country(a), region and the world	Average 1952/53 to 1954/55	Average 1957/58 to 1959/60	Percentage increase (5 yr.span)
Japan	92	119	29.3
Taiwan	97	118	21.6
Federation of Malaya	96	112	16.7
Philippines	97	113	16.5
Ceylon	97	109	12.4
South Korea	99	111	12.1
Thailand	94	105	11.7
India	97	107	10.3
Indonesia	99	107	8.1
Burma	99	104	5.1
Pakistan	99	102	3.0
TOTAL WORLD[a]	97	112	15.5

Source: United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, Production Yearbook 1960 (Rome 1961).

(a) Excluding mainland China.

(1) See official report of the Inaugural Assembly of the East Asia Christian Conference, held at Kuala Lumpur, Malaya,May 14-24, 1959. pp. 93-96.

(2) United Nations - Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1961. 62.II.F.1. Bangkok, March 1962. p. 13.

TABLE No. 16

FAR EAST: SELECTED STATISTICS ON AGRICULTURAL LAND,

by country, 1959

Country	Total land area	Agricultural share of total	Agricultural land[1]	Per capita agricultural land
	Thousand sq.mi.	Percent	Million acres	Acres
FREE WORLD COUNTRIES:				
Afghanistan	251	4	6.0	0.45
Burma	262	13	22.8	1.11
Cambodia	67	9	3.9	.81
Ceylon	25	22	3.6	.37
India	1,299	40	336.9	.84
Indonesia	576	12	43.7	.49
Japan	143	14	12.7	.14
Korea, South	37	21	4.9	.21
Laos	91	3	1.7	.81
Malaya, Fed. of	51	17	5.5	.82
Nepal	54	25	8.6	.94
Pakistan	365	24	56.1	.65
Philippines	116	19	14.1	.57
Taiwan	14	26	2.3	.23
Thailand	198	15	19.0	.87
Vietnam, South	66	16	6.8	.51
Total or average	3,615	24	548.6	.66
ASIAN COMMUNIST COUNTRIES:				
China, Mainland	3,800	11	276.6	.41
Korea, North	47	17	5.1	.64
Vietnam, North	63	12	4.8	.32
Total or average	3,910	11	286.5	.41
GRAND total or average	7,525	17	835.1	.55

1) Agricultural land refers to permanently cultivated area rather than potentially cultivable land and does not include grazing or waste land.

Source: United States Department of Agriculture (Economic Research Service). Foreign Agricultural Economic Report No. 2. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. November 1961. p. 10.

TABLE No. 17

FAR EAST: NUMBER AND AVERAGE SIZE OF FARMS, by country, 1959

Country	Number of farms	Average size of farms (1
	Million	Acres
Afghanistan	n.a.	n.a.
Burma	3.0	7.6
Cambodia	.7 (2	5.6 (2
Ceylon	(3	(3
India	62.0	5.4
Indonesia	13.4 (2	3.3 (2
Japan	6.0	2.1
Korea,South	2.2	2.2
Laos	.2 (2	8.5 (2
Malaya,Fed. of	(3	(3
Nepal	1.4 (2	6.1 (2
Pakistan	13.4 (2	4.2 (2
Philippines	1.6	8.8
Taiwan	.75	3.1
Thailand	2.0	9.5
Vietnam,South	1.6	4.2
(United States)	3.7	95.0

1) In terms of permanently cultivable land - does not include wasteland, grazing land,etc.
2) Unofficial estimates based on fragmentary data.
3) Wide differences between the numerous large commercially operated estates and peasant holdings are such as to make averages less meaningful in these countries.

Source: United States Department of Agriculture (Economic Research Service). Foreign Agricultural Economic Report No. 2. An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. November 1961. p. 11.

TABLE No. 18

FAR EAST: Summary of Principal Agricultural Exports by Country and Commodity, 1958(1

(Million dollars)

Country	Rubber	Tea	Rice	Coconuts(3	Sugar	Jute	Tobacco	Cotton	Wool	Palm oil	Coffee	Cashews	Abaca	Spices	Silk	TOTAL
Burma(2	7.9	-	165.2	-	-	-	-	5.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	178.4
Cambodia(2	16.3	-	19.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.6	-	37.0
Ceylon	54.2	237.5	-	40.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	331.9
India	-	286.7	-	-	7.7	-	30.9	31.9	18.1	-	15.1	32.6	-	18.5	-	441.5
Indonesia	261.2	24.8	-	20.9	8.9(4	-	30.2	-	-	23.7	18.1	-	-	7.7	-	395.5
Japan	-	4.6	-	-	1.1	-	3.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.2	22.5	32.5
Korea,So.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.2	.5	.7
Malaya, Fed.of	391.1	-	-	15.7	-	-	-	-	-	15.5	-	-	-	-	-	422.3
Pakistan(2	-	5.1	-	-	-	163.9	-	6.7	21.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	197.4
Philippines	-	-	-	170.2	116.2	-	7.9	-	-	-	-	-	28.5	-	-	322.8
Taiwan	-	6.4	26.4	-	80.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	113.6
Thailand	63.3	-	142.5	-	-	-	4.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	.6	-	210.5
Vietnam,So.	35.1	-	13.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49.0
TOTAL	829.1	565.1	367.1	247.0	214.7	163.9	76.2	43.9	39.8	39.2	33.2	32.6	28.5	29.8	23.0	2,733.1

1) This table includes about 90 percent of all agricultural exports of the countries listed.
2) Data for 1957.
3) Includes coconut products.
4) Sugar cane.

NOTE. - This table is compiled from summary tables of individual countries and is not therefore all inclusive. Blank spaces do not mean no exports but only that the commodity is minor in that country's trade.

Source: United States Department of Agriculture. Foreign Agricultural Economic Report No. 2, An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Economic Research Service,Regional Analysis Division, November 1961. p. 34.

TABLE No. 19

FAR EAST: Summary of Principal Agricultural Imports by Country and Commodity, 1958[1]

(Million dollars)

Country	Wheat[2]	Cotton raw	Rice	Wool	Sugar	Dairy products	Rubber	Soy beans	Fruits and vegetables	Barley	Corn	Tobacco	TOTAL
Burma[3]	-	-	-	-	2.8	11.2	-	-	1.2	-	-	0.8	16.0
Cambodia[3]	1.0	-	-	-	1.0	1.6	-	-	2.4	-	-	.7	6.7
Ceylon	14.1	-	49.9	-	17.7	11.6	-	-	11.8	-	-	-	105.1
Hong Kong	-	36.3	41.9	8.3	10.3	19.1	-	-	43.5	-	-	4.6	164.0
India	215.6	64.3	92.5	-	-	9.7	6.5	-	12.6	-	-	2.9	404.1
Indonesia	8.9	6.2	88.0	-	.3	6.7	-	-	.1	-	-	3.8	114.0
Japan	154.2	340.3	72.5	189.8	120.6	-	72.2	90.8	-	41.4	40.0	-	1,121.8
Korea, South	38.2	31.7	-	9.1	6.8	1.8	4.5	-	-	18.5	-	-	110.6
Malaya, Fed. of	11.2	-	45.5	-	22.0	17.7	24.2	-	8.2	-	-	-	128.8
Pakistan[3]	58.1	-	58.0	-	16.3	3.2	-	-	1.7	-	-	-	137.3
Philippines	28.2	8.4	20.7	-	-	27.3	-	-	-	-	-	2.6	87.2
Taiwan	18.2	15.8	-	1.9	-	1.6	2.2	9.9	-	-	-	-	49.6
Thailand	3.7	-	-	-	2.4	18.2	-	-	-	-	-	8.6	32.9
Vietnam, South	4.5	-	-	-	5.0	8.2	-	-	1.4	-	-	2.7	21.8
Total-	555.9	503.0	469.0	209.1	205.2	137.9	109.6	100.7	82.9	59.9	40.0	26.7	2,499.9

1) This table includes over 80 percent of all agricultural imports by the countries listed.
2) Includes wheat flour.
3) Data for 1957.

NOTE - This table is compiled from summary tables of individual countries and is not therefore all inclusive. Blank spaces do not mean no imports but only that the commodity is minor in that country's trade.

Source: United Department of Agriculture. Foreign Agricultural Economic Report No.2, An Economic Analysis of Far Eastern Agriculture. Economic Research Service, Regional Analysis Division, November 1961. p. 36.

TABLE No. 20

INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC AID TO UNDER-DEVELOPED COUNTRIES 1960

(Grants in Million U.S.Dollars)

Country	Australia	Canada	New Zealand	United Kingdom	United States
AFGHANISTAN	-	-	-	-	12.0
BRITISH BORNEO	0.3	0.1	0.2	3.6	-
BURMA	0.7	0.3	0.1	-	1.6
CAMBODIA	1.0	0.1	-	-	24.6
CEYLON	0.1	1.9	0.1	-	7.6
CHINA (Taiwan)	-	-	-	-	91.8
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	1.1	0.2	0.1	9.5	0.2
HONG KONG	-	-	-	-	5.0
INDIA	1.9	26.5	1.1	-	40.3
INDONESIA	1.4	1.1	0.2	-	10.6
KOREA,Republic	-	-	-	-	251.3
LAOS	-	-	-	-	33.0
NEPAL	0.1	-	-	0.3	7.9
PAKISTAN	1.3	11.7	0.1	0.3	121.7
PHILIPPINES	0.2	0.1	-	-	18.8
SINGAPORE	0.2	-	-	0.3	0.2
THAILAND	0.8	0.1	-	-	26.5
VIET-NAM	0.5	0.5	-	-	185.7

Source: United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Statistical Yearbook 1961. Sales No.: 62-XVII-I. New York,1961. Table No. 156, p. 460.

THE SOCIAL SITUATION

Transitional Societies

Transition is a major fact in Asia today and it is manifested in three ways, in the social revolution, the political revolution (against Colonialism) and the revolution against poverty.

The transition is from an agrarian society to an industrial one, although that is a general statement which is subject to certain qualifications which will be mentioned later. The Asian population is very largely rural and is likely to remain so for a long time to come. By and large the villages have not changed much in a century. However, the big cities offer a great contrast with all the trappings of modern life--airports, air conditioning, modern buildings with elevators, art exhibitions, and so on. Urbanization is one of the phenomena around which rapid social change is taking place.

The revolution against colonialism is almost complete in Southeast Asia. Since World War II, the Philippines, Burma, Indonesia, Viet-Nam, Cambodia, Laos, and Malaya have become independent. To treat the Asian nations, however, as young and immature, is to forget that some of their historical records, traditions and culture are as old, if not older, than those of Europe. The revolution against colonialism is not something negative; it involves building new nations, and that means seeking solutions to vast and complicated economic and social problems affecting the fast growing population of each country. It is also the result of the impact of modernity on the traditional, non-industrial societies. "The conflict between the 'old' and the 'new' is almost everywhere in evidence and almost everywhere is productive of some change, some transition."(1)

The third phase of the transition is related to poverty and the standard of living. "Poverty is the common denominator of all of Asia. The task of the new governments in acquiring legitimacy and establishing order is enormously complicated by their inability to raise the standard of living appreciably."(2) In Asia, as in other underdeveloped areas of the world, it is now widely believed that poverty and low living standards are not the inevitable lot of mankind, and that therefore something can be done about them. This growing realization on the part of the masses in Asia has tremendous implications, especially when governments find that any economic growth is largely offset by an increase in the population.

Poverty, moreover, is relative rather than absolute. The poor feel their poverty more acutely when it is contrasted with, or seen in juxtaposition with wealth and the relative abundance of material things. This happens particularly when rural people migrate to the cities, but it is not confined to them.

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(1) Trager, Frank N., "Some Comments on 'Transitional Societies in Asia'." The American Behavioral Scientist. Social Research in Southeast Asia - A Special Issue. Vol. V, No. 10, June 1962. Princeton, New Jersey. p. 7.

(2) Armstrong, John P. Southeast Asia and American Policy. Foreign Relations Series. River Forest, Illinois: Laidlaw Brothers Publishers. p. 11.

One aspect of the transitional society which has been studied very little is the effects which the changes have had, and will continue to have, on value systems. In the case of a country like Indonesia, "there is no public discussion of the upsetting consequences it (industrialization) will have for the value system of Indonesians. Already the problem of juvenile delinquency has grown to serious proportions in Bandung and Djakarta. This was unheard of in village life. As the moral system of the village loses its influence, there is no comparable urban system to take over. Once a society begins to break the rules it has lived by, it is difficult to tell where the process will end. There is apt to be a chaotic period when there are no standards at all by which to judge right and wrong."(1)

Youth and the Asia Revolution

"The Asian revolution was in large part the result of the impact of Western ideas and Western imperialism."(2) Elsewhere we have drawn attention to the fact that more than fifty percent of the people of Asia are under twenty years of age. Therefore, the effect which the revolution has on youth is important.(3)

Harris indicates five basic aims of the Asian leaders and the articulate sectors of the population. These aims were "to be masters in their own house; ...acceptance by the West on a basis of social equality; an increase in material prosperity; ....international recognition and security; ...that the morrow should be theirs."(4)

Following political independence it became apparent that there was a fundamental disagreement or contrast between the idealism of the leaders and the realism of the younger generation. "The difference between per capita national income in the advanced and the underdeveloped nations is continually growing, and young people have been strongly attracted by the way of life in the western nations which are experiencing this 'consumer revolution'. There are many young people who are 'longing for a Cadillac standard of living on a buffalo cart income," says Kentaro Shiozuki, a Japanese Christian.(5) This manifests itself even in the style of dress, as young people try to imitate their counterparts in American films. The aspiration after higher material standards seems to outdistance the economic growth which would enable the aspirations to be fulfilled, and the disparity between the ideal and the real produces disillusionment and frustration among the youth in Asia.

Another aspect of the Asian revolution is mentioned by Leslie Harris. Engaged in a great and political revolution of vital significance, particularly to young people, "Their struggle against poverty, disease and illiteracy

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(1) Armstrong, John P. Op. cit., pp. 21-22.

(2) Harris, Leslie. And the Morrow is Theirs. This lecture inaugurated The Asian Studies Program at Sweet Briar College, October 12, 1960, Lynchburg College, February 8, 1961, and Randolph-Macon Woman's College, March 9, 1961.

(3) For further discussion of this see Chapter on Education.

(4) Harris, Leslie. Op. cit., p. 7.

(5) Shiozuki, Kentaro. "Our Calling to Service in Asia Today" in Student World, World Student Christian Federation. Vol. LV, Third Quarter 1962, No. 3, Serial Number 217. Geneva. p. 269.

is far more real and important to them than is the struggle between international Communism and democracy. They fear Communism when it is politically aggressive, and as Nehru has said, they will resist it when it 'comes not only as an economic doctrine, but rather as an extension of imperialism'."(1)

Modernization and New Values

Industrialization is of primary importance in the process of modernization which is going on in Asia today. Industrialization not only increases the amount of material goods and machinery, but it also provides a higher level of income to a larger number of people. Moreover, industrialization tends to attract rural people to urban areas, although not as much as is generally assumed. "The urban areas of these countries still contain relatively little industry, and, in general, only a small minority of those who settle in the cities work in industries, particularly in industries of the factory type."(2)

Thus it can be said that industrialization is only one factor in the modernization of Asia. Modernization involves fundamental changes in the social and economic structure of a given country, and important and far-reaching among these is agrarian reform. A good example of this is the recent history of Japan and especially the changes brought about by agrarian reform. "Prior to the land reform, approximately fifty percent of the agricultural land was cultivated by tenant farmers; this has been reduced to ten percent. The great majority of farmers now own their land, and absentee landlordism is largely a thing of the past."(3) The farmers of Japan are now in a better position to buy the goods being produced by an expanding industry. The influence of Japan's agrarian reform upon other countries is far-reaching as they struggle with the same problem. "India...is still struggling to bring about land reform; only the zamindars have been abolished, and landlordism still remains ... How India succeeds in bringing about land reform through gradual change will be a valuable example, not only for the rest of Asia, but also for other underdeveloped areas of the world."(4)

Agrarian reform in Korea has also brought about social change. Before World War II, when South Korea was under the Japanese "the proportion of landless farmers had reached about 75 percent...Agrarian reform measures introduced after 1945 by American occupational forces expropriated nearly 700,000 acres of Japanese-owned lands in South Korea and sold them to almost 600,000 tenant families on a long-term payment basis. Subsequent land reforms have moved more slowly. In North Korea all large farms were expropriated and cultivation rights turned over to tenant farmers."(5)

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(1) Harris, Leslie. Op. cit., p. 13.

(2) United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation, including studies of urbanization in under-developed areas. E/CN.5/324/Rev. 1 ST/SOA/33. Sales No.: 1957.IV.3. New York, 1957. p. 112.

(3) Cho, Kiyoko Takeda. "A Christian Understanding of the Nature and Scope of the Asian Revolution" in Student World. Vol. LV, Third Quarter, 1962, Number 3, Serial Number 217. Geneva: World Student Christian Federation. p. 277.

(4) Ibid., p. 278.

(5) Spencer, J.E. Asia East by South. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1954. p. 365.

"At present four-fifths of the Korean farmers are tenants, but three out of four farmers were heavily in debt for amounts averaging almost twice their average yearly income. Income rates were about 30 percent, but they went as high as 70 to 80 percent."(1) Thus, the burden of debt and the evil of usury continue. "In the Korean countryside men have said for centuries that the farmer owns the land, the money lender owns the farmer."(2) In the summer of 1961 the new regime in Korea ordered that all loans under $125 be registered and taken over by the government. Slowly, and under pressure, a total of $39,000,000 in loans was registered. In the future, the government will extend credit to the farmers.

The modernization of a people involves the development of a participant society, one in which more and more people, especially in the villages participate in the economic, social and political life of a nation. Village people are frequently found to be outside these aspects of national life. Urbanization, the attainment of literacy, and mass media of communication play an important part in the development of a participant society. The rehabilitation of rural people, community development involving economic advancement and literacy campaigns, in addition to a number of reforms, are also part of the process of modernization (although less intensively than in urban areas). The population of Asia is largely rural, and it must not be concluded that modernization means complete urbanization. There have been instances where too rapid urbanization has set back the process of modernization.

The modernization of Asia is not synonymous with Westernization, although the latter may, and in many cases does, stimulate the former. In the past, many Asians have adopted a fatalistic or submissive attitude in the face of disaster and misfortune, whether it be personal or collective. In areas where there are earthquakes, floods and typhoons, this is perhaps understandable. However, the revolution affecting many external aspects of life is also affecting thought patterns, and more and more people are coming to see that some of the misfortunes they formerly accepted with a fatalistic attitude can be changed. "The realization that reality is not determined by fate, but is something which can be changed, has revolutionary implications for the fatalistic and passive view of life and history held by many people of Asia..."(3) This awakening in all levels of society is producing a kind of indigenous renaissance, not in the sense of a revival of old cultures but of a new self-consciousness of man himself.

"Without the introduction of new concepts and technology, which the indigenous cultures have not themselves produced, there will be little progress in creating a better life for their people... Most of the change Southeast Asia has undergone in the Twentieth Century has been due to the cultural transfer of ideals like self-determination, of political philosophies like democratic liberalism and Marxism, of technology in the fields of transportation and communication, medicine, armaments, education, and natural resource development, and of consumer goods."(4)

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(1) Cressey, George. Asia's Lands and Peoples. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co. 1951. p. 240.

(2) Rosenthal, A.M. "Korean Regime Combats High Usury Burden" in The New York Times. October 22, 1961.

(3) Cho, Kiyoko Takeda. Op. cit., pp. 283-4.

(4) Neff, Kenneth L. "Education and the Forces of Change" in International Development Review, Vol. IV, Number 1, March 1962. Washington, D.C.: Society for International Development. p. 22.

Urbanization

Urbanization is the process by which a growing proportion of a country's population lives in urban localities. "Urbanization is a key factor in the race between increased productivity and population growth, because it creates a milieu for modern industry on the one hand and apparently tends to reduce the birth rate on the other."(1) The significance of urbanization lies in the basic social transformations which take place in the big cities, as compared with the rural areas which are more conservative and less subject to change. The fast growing cities of Asia "are the focal points for change and progress in their countries. New employment opportunities with higher wages tend to develop here, rising social standards and political demands emanate from them; and it is here that most of the housing construction, improvement efforts, and major expenditures for public works are centered."(2)

Demographic Aspects. Asia is less urbanized than any of the other continents, except Africa. This means that a relatively smaller proportion of the population live in urban areas. As reported in 1958 "with 53 percent of the world's population, Asia has only thirty-four percent of the world's inhabitants resident in cities with 20,000 or more persons. Only thirteen percent of Asia's population live in cities of 20,000 or more compared with the world average of twenty-one percent...only eight percent of Asia's population live in cities of 100,000 or more."(3)

The surprising fact, however, is that in spite of the relatively small proportion of population living in cities, "Asia has more larger cities and a larger urban population than either Europe or America...Of 502 million persons in the world (1950) living in cities of 20,000 or more, 170 million, or thirty-four percent, lived in Asia."(4)

Taking all of Asia, the following cities have more than two million inhabitants: (See Table No. 21-POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL ASIAN CITIES).

South Asia:
- India
  - Bombay
  - Calcutta
  - New Delhi

Southeast Asia:
- Indonesia
  - Djakarta
- Philippines
  - Manila

Far East:
- Hong Kong
- China
  - Peiping
  - Shanghai
  - Shenyang
  - Tientsin
- Japan
  - Osaka
  - Tokyo
- Korea
  - Seoul

(1) Bauer, Catherine. "The Pattern of Urban and Economic Development: Social Implications" in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science- 'Agrarian Societies in Transition',May 1956,Vol.305,p.60.
(2) Ibid., p. 62.
(3) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Regional Planning, Housing, Building and Planning Nos. 12 & 13. Seminar on Regional Planning, Tokyo, July 28 to August 8, 1958. ST/SOA/SER. C/12 & 13. New York, 1959. pp. 23-24.
(4) Ibid., p. 24.

In 1961, according to UN estimates, there were thirty-seven cities in Asia with more than a million inhabitants compared with seven cities with over a million in North America. The opinion was voiced at a United Nations Seminar,(1) held in Tokyo in 1958, that Asia is "over-urbanized," that is, that many countries "have a larger urban population than is justified by their degrees of industrialization or general economic development."

According to the findings of the Joint UN/UNESCO Seminar in Bangkok (1956) and Calcutta (1957), the main reasons for the growth of Asian cities are as follows:

1. The low land-population ratio arising from rapid population growth in relation to agricultural resources.

2. The disruption caused by World War II and the political changes which followed. "Many of the cities are choked with refugees."

3. The lure of urban life to which many peasants were exposed while on military service.

4. The exhaustion of natural resources in some areas.

5. Seasonality of employment in agriculture, creating migratory movements toward the cities.(2)

Many of the Asian cities are primate cities, which means that their population figures are much higher, sometimes five to ten times, than the second city of the country. It should be noted also that these primate cities are "not so much the result of indigenous economic development as the product of economic development oriented essentially to one or more foreign countries."(3) This development took place largely during the "colonial period."

Urbanization in Asia is by no means an unmixed blessing or a positive factor in modernization and progress. "In many cases," according to UN studies, "the so-called 'consequences' of industrialization or urbanization represent little more than the transfer, through migration, of rural poverty to the cities, where it becomes more concentrated and conspicuous... The overflow of rural distress into urban districts is an outstanding characteristic of economically underdeveloped countries today."(4)

Another U.N. report raises the question as to whether "such spontaneous migratory movements, properly channelled and assisted, could not be utilized for purposes of internal land settlement. New resources would then be drawn into the national economies, and the consequently increased circulation of

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(1) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Regional Planning. Op. cit., p. 24.

(2) See Urbanization in Asia and the Far East. Proceedings of the Joint UN/UNESCO Seminar, Bangkok, August 8-18, 1956. Calcutta, 1957.p.34.

(3) Ibid., p. 24.

(4) United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation, 1957. Op. cit., p. 112.

goods and services, incidentally, would justify part of the urban growth, including the growth of towns of intermediate size, now greatly overshadowed by the expansion of primate cities."(1)

Urban Community Development. The unprecedented growth of Asian metropolitan areas brings social tensions, high crime rates, transportation difficulties, food and water shortages, and above all, severe housing problems. Four lines of approach have been tried in Asian cities to deal with the urban expansion and housing problems.(2)

1. Limit urban expansion by legislation.

2. Establish new towns to relieve pressure on the existing urban centers.

3. Initiate multi-purpose river valley development projects to tap new resources and create new centers of employment for surplus labor.

4. Improve the agricultural economy and the development of new types of settlement which would combine the advantages of rural and urban life.

In addition there has been popular collaboration with municipalities in efforts for the general improvement of a neighborhood. These community development projects include improving environmental sanitation and other public health measures; increasing educational and cultural opportunities; experiments in popular participation in housing projects, such as the well-known practice of 'aided self-help housing', in which neighbors help one another construct their houses, working through local groups receiving technical and material assistance from a competent municipal or central service.(3)

The Forgotten Peasant

The forgotten peasant is the one who, for one reason or another, has migrated to the city and there become lost in its jungle life. Many of these peasants maintain their roots in the village, returning there for funerals, births, deaths and for traditional festive occasions. The peasant probably finds living conditions in the city worse than they were back in the village , and because he is in all probability an unskilled and an unwilling worker, his productivity is relatively low. "This body of unskilled labor, still loyal to strictly rural interests, adds a most dangerous element to the city. The peasant not only dislikes life there, but also lives under the most appalling conditions...much worse, than those prevailing in the rural areas."(4)

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(1) United Nations - Department of Economic andSocial Affairs. The Population of Southeast Asia (Including Ceylon and China: Taiwan) 1950-1980. Report III, Future Population Estimates by Sex and Age. Population Studies No. 30. ST/SOA/Series A/30. New York, 1958. p. 54.

(2) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Regional Planning. Op. cit., p. 118.

(3) For a description of the 'self-help program' for Taiwan and Hong Kong, see United Nations document- Community Development in Urban Areas. Report by the Secretary-General. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. ST/SOA/43 E/CN.5/356/Rev. 1. New York, 1961.

(4) Edwardes, Michael. Asia in the Balance. Penguin Books S204. Baltimore, Maryland, 1962. p. 88.

Rural people are said to be arriving in already overcrowded Djakarta (Indonesia) at the rate of 500 a day and this pattern is common throughout South and Southeast Asia.(1) The serious nature of this situation has been dramatically described in these words, "Having cut himself away from all but formal loyalties of village life, he has acquired no new loyalties. He represents the new Asian 'mob,' unstable, fearful, crushed under pressures whose nature he does not understand, his only outlet the unreasoning violence that can be triggered off by anything and is very difficult to control, because it is unreasoning."(2)

The Changing Village

"If you want to understand us, first learn what life in the villages is like."(3) So say the Asians to those of the West.

In India, for example, it is estimated that eighty to eighty-five percent of the people live in villages. "There are about 600,000 villages scattered across the countryside. Almost half of all Indians live in villages of less than 2,000 people each; a quarter of all Indians live in villages of less than 500 each. When you multiply any percent by 438 million (1961 census population of India), you get an overwhelming shock of numbers; these figures reveal that over 100 million people...dwell together in communities of less than 500!"(4)

The writer in describing these villages, comments that "all but a few have no electricity (March, 1960); the Indian government estimated that of the more than 550,000 villages with less than 10,000 people, only about 3.5 percent had electricity, no sewage system, no protected water supply. The chief sources of water are wells (most of them not lined with brick and therefore susceptible to pollution), tanks or ponds filled by monsoon rains, and, for the fortunate villages, rivers and canals."(5)

As we have already stated, the people of Asia are predominantly rural. In contrast to the United States, where rural people mostly live in isolated farms, the vast majority of rural people in Asia, from 75 to 85 percent, live in small villages and are subsistence farmers. They produce only what they consume themselves and thus add very little, if anything, to the national economy.

Village people are much more conservative and bound by tradition than city people. And yet, even in the villages, changes are taking place, although the barriers are enormous. Responsibility for initiating projects lies traditionally with some outside authority, but even in this respect, things are changing. The aim of governments is to help villagers help themselves.

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(1) Edwardes, Michael. Op. cit., p. 88.
(2) Ibid., p. 89.
(3) Armstrong, John P. Op. cit., p. 7.
(4) "India: Tradition in Transition" by Seymour Fersh. Reprinted from Goals of Democracy Annual 1963 by McCutchen, Fersh, and Clark. New York: The Macmillan Company 1962. pp. 202-203.
(5) Ibid., p. 203.

In India the provision for small scale village industries was twice as much in the Second Five-Year Plan as in the First. "In the Republic of Viet-Nam, several agricultural rehabilitation and colonization projects are under way; new industrial centers are being developed for the processing of rural products...and measures to make rural life more attractive include the organization of literacy classes, training courses in agriculture and husbandry workshops."(1)

Community development programs are being undertaken by governments to raise the levels of living and enhance social welfare. In Indonesia, India, Malaya, Philippines, Pakistan, Burma, Singapore and Japan "community development has been based on traditional forms of community organization and co-operation."

Family Life

The social revolution is having an affect on patterns of family life. There is a widespread disunity in the family and a striving on the part of the younger members of the family for freedom, which often reaches the dimensions of revolt against accepted standards of conduct. "They demand the right to choose their own vocation, to choose their own mate, and to make any decision which in the old culture was automatically made by parents."(2) "Changes in Indonesian family life have been drastic. Young people are prone to be rebellious instead of, as formerly, submissive to parents."(3)

More serious in its consequences, however, is the impact which Western civilization has had on ancient concepts of right and wrong and the standards of morals. "Vices, such as gambling, drinking, smoking, drug addiction and irregular sex relations have increased. There is an alarming amount of crime and juvenile delinquency, desertion of husbands or wives, and plural wives or husbands."(4)

With the rapid social and economic changes taking place, it is becoming possible for more women to work outside their homes and thus to share the financial burdens of the family with their husbands. The man is the recognized head of the household, but a woman in most countries has a dignified place in society in more meaningful ways than formerly as she moves toward emancipation and freedom as a person. "The family has begun to have new meaning in Korea. The old feudalistic view of marriage is fast disappearing. There is an emerging sense of the equality of man and woman."(5)

Status of Women

It is difficult to define exactly what is meant by the phrase "the status of women," but there seems to be general agreement that it relates to

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(1) United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. International Survey of Programs of Social Development. E/CN.5/332 ST/SOA/39. Sales No.: 59.IV.2. New York, 1959. pp. 184-5.

(2) Manikam, Rajah B. and Highbaugh, Irma (ed.) The Christian Family in Changing East Asia. Report of the East Asia Christian Family Life Seminar-Conference, Manila, 1954. pp. 11-12.

(3) World Christian Education (quarterly). Vol. XVII, No. 2. 1962. The World Council of Christian Education and Sunday School Association. p. 51.

(4) Manikam, Rajah B. and Highbaugh, Irma. Op. cit., p. 12.

(5) World Christian Education. Vol. XVII, No. 2. Op. cit., p. 53.

equal opportunities with men for playing an effective part in social, economic and political life, adequate opportunities for education and community activities. In a word, it involves the doing away with certain disabilities and inequalities from which women have suffered in the past.

The role of women in Asian society is changing rapidly, and it can be stated that this is largely due to social changes through the processes of urbanization, industrialization, the spread of new ideas and ideals, through mass media of communication, and the stimulus of the independence movement. "Eastern women (of Asia), in the brief span of a few decades, have gone far in their steady movement from the quiet, protected environment of a family-centered life into the wide ranges and pressures of life in the East today...The periphery of women's life now includes the whole area of civic and national interests and international relationships."(1)

The case of Japan is distinct from those of other countries. The new constitution of 1946 was largely responsible for the fundamental changes in the status of Japanese women which have taken place in less than two years. "It took such a tragic national crisis as the last world war to bring about a sweeping social change. Thus, the emancipation of women in Japan was attained institutionally through the unexpected reformation after the second world war. In so far as the change in the position of women was brought about directly by the new law, the new constitution and by the democratization of the educational system, the liberation of Japanese women can be attributed in large measure to compulsion from without."(2)

The position of women in India and Pakistan has also changed considerably in recent years although the situation is different from that of Japan. "The traditional Indian woman was, like other Asian women, once exalted for purity, constancy and the idealism that sometimes escaped the men of these countries. Today, to these qualities, that by and large still exist both in the countryside and in the town, is added the quality of dynamic good sense under swiftly changing conditions."(3)

In India, a protracted period of British rule gave women certain political, legal and educational rights, but in many cases women were not ready to enjoy them to the full. However, national independence has had a stimulating effect on women's movements. "Clearly, Indian women are not as advanced in public service as the women of Europe and the United States. Nevertheless, there are in the big cities of India today women just as poised in public service, as sophisticated in outlook and as capable of holding distinguished appointments under the State or in international affairs as any in Europe or the United States."(4)

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(1) Woodsmall, Ruth F. Women of the New East. Washington, D.C.: The Middle East Institute, 1960. pp. 380-1.
(2) Koyama Takashi. The Changing Social Position of Women in Japan. Paris: UNESCO, 1961. pp. 15-16.
(3) India on the March. Washington, D.C.: Information Service of India. March 1962. p. 62.
(4) Ibid., p. 63.

In Indian cities, women work as clerks, stenographers, telephone operators, secretaries in national government offices, teachers, judges, and members of parliament. "In the 1962 general elections, the number of women elected to the Lok Sahba increased from 28 to 34."(1)

In both India and Pakistan the influence of Christianity on the position of women in society has been felt for a considerable period of time through Christian schools, colleges and hospitals. In Indonesia, where there is a large Muslim population "...women have never known the restrictive social customs of Islam - the veil and segregation...all classes of women participate in every phase of national life."(2) In both Pakistan and Indonesia, women have the vote and may run as candidates in any political election. These were rights granted at the time of independence. "In Indonesia it is not unusual for women to be members of municipal and departmental councils, and there have been several women Cabinet members."(3) In general, it can be said that in Asia today the position of women has greatly improved.

The key to the situation is in education. "Especially in the developing countries, it is important that women be taught to avail themselves of their political rights."(4) In a meeting of the Status of Women Commission, it was stated that "85 countries in reply to a questionnaire from UNESCO reported that legally there was no discrimination against education for girls."(5) In Asia, however, it is recognized that the application of the principle of equality of educational opportunity for boys and girls has encountered obstacles of various kinds. Even where girls do attend primary schools, the number who withdraw before completing the course is often quite high.

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In conclusion, it can be said that Asia is in the throes of a complex and far-reaching revolution, affecting the lives of a large segment of the human race. Radical social change is never a peaceful process. The possibilities of violence and suffering are increasing by the need and desire to hasten the transition from a traditional to a new society. "Resignation is no longer the typical emotion of Asia," wrote Dean Acheson. "It has given way to hope, to a sense of effort, and in many cases to a real sense of anger."(6)

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(1) India on the March. Op.cit., p. 64.
(2) Woodsmall, Ruth F. Op.cit., p. 197.
(3) Hussein, Anne-Marie. "New Horizons for Asia's Moslem Women" in the UNESCO Courier. March 1961. p. 20.
(4) Sixteenth Report to the Pan Pacific and Southeast Asia Women's Association - We the Peoples of the United Nations. New York. The Pan Pacific and Southeast Asia Women's Association of the U.S.A. Quarterly Newsletter, June 1962. p. 2.
(5) Ibid., p. 5.
(6) Quoted by Leslie Harris in And the Morrow is Theirs. Op.cit., p. 5.

TABLE No. 21

POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL ASIAN CITIES

COUNTRY and CITY	1950(1)	1960(2)
SOUTH ASIA		
CEYLON		
Colombo (Capital)	361,000	426,127
INDIA		
Ahmedabad	591,257	788,333
Bangalore	248,334	778,977
Bombay	1,489,883	4,146,491
Calcutta	2,108,891	2,926,498
Calcutta (Met.)	-	5,550,195
Delhi	521,849	914,790
Hyderabad	739,159	1,085,722
Madras	777,481	1,416,056
New Delhi (Capital)	-	2,000,000
PAKISTAN		
Karachi	1,000,000	1,126,417
Lahore	671,659	849,000
SOUTHEAST ASIA		
BURMA		
Rangoon (Capital)	400,415	740,000
INDONESIA		
Bandung	750,000(3)	1,046,189
Djakarta (Batavia)(Capital)	2,900,000 "	3,317,562
Palembang	350,000 "	723,232
Surabaya	800,000	1,310,631
PHILIPPINES		
Cebu	167,503(3)	209,111
Manila, Gr.	1,100,000 "	2,022,420
SINGAPORE	769,216	1,634,000
THAILAND		
Bangkok (Capital)	931,170	1,773,318
VIET-NAM		
Haiphong (North)	-	367,000
Hanoi (North)(Capital)	-	638,000
Saigon (South)(Capital)	-	1,800,000
CAMBODIA		
Phnom-Penh (Capital)	-	550,000
LAOS		
Vientiane (Capital)	-	138,000

(Continued) -

TABLE NO.21 (Cont'd.)
POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL ASIAN CITIES

COUNTRY and CITY	1950(1)	1960(2)
FAR EAST		
TAIWAN		
Kaohsiung	275,563(3)	438,429
Keelung	-	286,373
Taichung	207,009(3)	286,058
Tainan	229,452 "	324,137
Taipei(Capital)	450,777 "	905,560
HONG KONG(British)	1,071,893	3,178,000(UN Report)
JAPAN		
Fukuoka	323,217	647,122
Hiroshima	343,968	431,336
Kawasaki	-	632,975
Kobe	1,006,100	1,113,977
Kyoto	1,177,200	1,284,818
Nagasaki	253,000	344,153
Nagoya	1,328,084	1,591,935
Osaka	3,252,340 (Gr.)	3,011,563
Sendai	223,630	425,272
Shizuoka	200,737	328,819
Tokyo, Gr. (Capital)	5,417,871	9,683,802
Yokohama	2,652,988	1,375,710
KOREA(Republic)		
Inchon	215,784(3)	650,000
Pusan (Fusan)	249,734	1,090,000
Seoul (Keijo)(Capital)	935,464	2,094,000
Taegu	269,113	643,000
OCEANIA		
AUSTRALIA		
Adelaide	370,000	577,000
Brisbane	396,890	578,000
Canberra(Capital)	19,000	50,237
Melbourne, Gr.	1,192,850	1,831,100
Sydney, Gr.	1,398,170	2,098,490
NEW ZEALAND		
Auckland	263,575	413,100
Wellington (Capital) (incl. Hutt)	193,300	236,200

Gr. denotes Greater, or metropolitan area.

(1) 1951 World Almanac and Book of Facts.
(2) 1962 World Almanac and Book of Facts.
(3) 1952 World Almanac and Book of Facts.
(4) Van Nostrand. Atlas of the World. D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., Princeton, New Jersey, 1961.

EDUCATION

The place and significance of education in Asia can be viewed from different standpoints. First, there is the individual level. There are many millions in Asia who have no formal education and cannot even read or write. "Our civilization is based on the written word. As that civilization develops and spreads, illiterates will be increasingly faced with a difficult and isolated existence, sometimes fearful and secretive, sometimes jeering and rebellious."(1)

Then there is the level of society itself. A participant society only exists when there is a high degree of education in the country. An uneducated person is usually a non-participant, that is, he cannot take an adequate part in the social and civic activities. Democracy and democratic processes may mean little to him because he is illiterate.

The third level in which education assumes importance is in the overall development of a country. It is a mistake to think that the economic growth of a country can be separated from its cultural, social and political development. The greatest changes taking place in Asia are in the minds of men.

"The ancient, well-established institutions of the agrarian culture are highly resistant to the changes that appear essential to the development of economically sound and politically stable 20th century national states. Since these institutions are based in the minds of man, it is there that the changes must take place. This is a task for education."(2)

The development of educational systems in Asia varies from country to country, but no one seems to question their vital contribution in the building of a modern state. In so many aspects of Indian development, education appears to be the key to progress. "All Japan, figuratively speaking, is a school. Alert and eager to learn, the Japanese place education high in their value system and are willing to make sacrifices to obtain it...Teaching is an esteemed profession."(3) There are other countries which have not progressed so rapidly and where all too large a percentage of the population is illiterate. It is estimated that in Asia as a whole, five out of every ten children are condemned to illiteracy in the light of present conditions.

Primary Education - The Karachi Plan

The most important event in the field of education in recent times was the holding of the Karachi Conference in December 1959-January 1960, and coupled with that, the meeting of the Ministers of Education of Asian Member

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(1) Fradier, Georges. "Asia's Vicious Circle" in UNESCO Courier.Nov.1960.p.5.
(2) Neff, Kenneth. "Education and the Forces of Change" in International Development Review. Vol. IV, No. 1, March 1962. p. 23.
(3) Anderson, Roland S. Japan - Three Epochs of Modern Civilization. U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare Bulletin,1959,No.11,p. 1.

States in Tokyo, Japan, April 2-11, 1962, to discuss the implementation of what has come to be known as the Karachi Plan. The Karachi Conference was attended by delegates from eighteen Asian countries: Afghanistan, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Korea, Laos, Federation of Malaya, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Viet-Nam.

With courage and forthrightness the meeting of ministers of education at Tokyo in 1962 resolved to do their utmost to implement the Karachi Plan in its main emphasis on achieving seven years of free and compulsory primary education by 1980, and to follow the example of the Addis Ababa Conference in securing financial backing for such a program. The Resolution of the Tokyo meeting said: "We have heard with deep satisfaction of the decision at Addis Ababa of our brother ministers in Africa, to invest immediately four percent of their aggregate national income in education, raising it to five percent by 1970 and six percent by 1980."(1)

The importance attached to primary education by those who formulated the Karachi Plan is seen in the following statement, "The Karachi Plan for the eventual provision of not less than seven years of universal and compulsory schooling embodies national desires to create the necessary conditions for full democratic growth. Such schooling provides the true base for the location and selection of a nation's talent and as such is the foundation of the educational pyramid...In addition, such schooling makes a major contribution to economic growth, permitting a more rapid spread of understanding and application of science and technology."(2)

"All Asian states accept the principle of universal, free and compulsory primary education...However, in a large part of the region, the enforcement of school attendance has not yet become a reality."(3)

The target date for achieving the compulsory seven years of schooling is 1980. A few countries, such as Ceylon, Malaya and the Philippines, hope to achieve their goal well in advance of that date. "Some countries, like Burma, India and Pakistan, have phased their programs and would first like to achieve a minimum of four or five years of compulsory education for all children before going on to the next stage of seven or eight years of schooling."(4) Japan has made extraordinary progress in education in recent years. It now has a system of nine years compulsory schooling with a 100 percent enrollment.

The Tokyo report considers that one of the hopeful developments in recent years has been the decision to encourage local initiative and to tap local resources for the support of primary education. The countries which have stressed this are: China, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan and Viet-Nam. In China (Taiwan), for example, where 94.84 percent of primary school age children were in school in 1960,(5) the government has adopted the "three

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(1) Report of Meeting of Ministers of Education of Asian Member States Participating in the Karachi Plan, held in Tokyo April 2-11,1962.Bangkok: UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia. UNESCO/ED/192.1962.p.38.
(2) Ibid., p. 15.
(3) UNESCO. Education Abstracts - "Primary Education in Asia". Vol. XII, No.3, March 1960. p. 6.
(4) Report of the Tokyo meeting. Op.cit., p. 12.
(5) Ibid., p. 6.

equal parts" plan, whereby the local community contributes one-third, the local government one-third, and the provisional government the remaining third of the cost of constructing new classrooms.(1) In Korea in 1961, it was estimated that 96.5 percent of the primary school age children were enrolled, but only 85.5 percent were actually in school. "The biggest problem in Korea is the acute shortage of classrooms and teachers."(2)

Some of the problems of an overall nature, in the way of achieving compulsory primary education are:

1) Scattered rural population in many countries.

2) Economic factors, including the poverty of many parents and the fact that economic productivity in countries that are predominantly agrarian is low, and governments lack necessary resources. There is also the economic factor in individual families. Often parents are too poor to send their children because they need them to help out with earning a little money or with work in the fields. In some countries, plans are being made to provide school meals for children of indigent parents, but it is believed that considerable external aid will be required to implement such programs.(3)

3) Language problems.With independence, some countries have adopted the national language in place of the foreign (English,Dutch or French) in the education system. This has required vast changes in the preparation of text books and materials, and in teacher-training.

4) The burgeoning population. With the falling death rate, due largely to better health services, the school population has greatly increased, and this fact has aggravated the existing problems.

5) Difficulties in the recruitment of women teachers, so necessary in a primary school system. The status of women is such that too few acquire an education leading to the teaching profession.

6) Endemic diseases in certain areas.

7) Lack of adequate transportation for children.

According to Fradier "the fundamental obstacle to educational progress is, in fact, a vicious circle. The people of these countries cannot build a sound educational system because they are poor - and they remain poor because they are not properly educated. The government is short of money to finance national education because its income is limited by the low living standards of the people, and these, in turn, cannot be raised, precisely because of the inadequate system of education."(4)

In addition, there are problems within the educational systems of most Asian countries, such as:

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(1) UNESCO - Report of the Tokyo meeting, p. 6.
(2) Ibid., p. 7.
(3) " p.14.
(4) Fradier, Georges. Op.cit., p. 10.

1) The need for more classrooms, better school buildings and quarters for teachers.

2) The need for adequate equipment and teaching materials, including text books.

3) An adequate number of trained teachers.

4) Better provision for education for girls.

There is general agreement that since the Karachi meeting was held in 1960, progress has been made by the various governments, inasmuch as "the broad outline of the Karachi Plan for the provision of universal education has now become an integral part of the educational plans of the Member States...and that it has been accorded a very high priority."(1)

The total estimated cost of the program outlined for all countries over a twenty-year period amounted to $56 billion.(2) So great is the lack of and so limited are the resources of most countries, that some aid must come from outside. The delegates at Karachi drew up a list of programs which they felt deserved consideration for assistance from external sources. It included:

1) Training of teachers, teacher educators,statisticians and planners.

2) Buildings and equipment.

3) Suppliers of paper for textbooks.

4) School meals and health services.

5) Development of science teaching.

6) Organization of demographic studies, educational research, pilot projects, etc.

7) Preparation of text books and teaching aids.

The possible sources of aid on a multi-lateral basis are the specialized agencies of the United Nations, such as: UNESCO, FAO, WHO, the U.N. Special Fund, UNICEF and IDA.(3) Bilateral aid includes assistance from one government to another and from private foundations.

It was noted at Karachi that the U.N. General Assembly had declared the current decade as the "Decade for Development", and that this requires "countries to take such action that their aggregate national income at the end of

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(1) UNESCO - Tokyo Report. Op.cit., p. 27.

(2) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation. E/CN. 5/346/Rev.1 ST/SOA/42. New York, 1961, p. 10.

(3) UNESCO - United Nations Educational,Scientific and Cultural Organization; FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; WHO -World Health Organization; UNICEF - United Nations Children's Fund; IDA -International Development Association.

the decade will be increasing by five percent annually, and...to promote in every way the development of their human resources; (and it noted the) decision requesting UNESCO to inaugurate a world campaign against illiteracy; and the decision of UNESCO's General Conference defining the priority of education in economic and social development."(1)

The decision was taken to move by stages toward investing from four to five percent of the gross national product in education by 1980, providing the economic growth of each country could make it possible. The ministers of education who met in Tokyo were inspired to emulate the example of Japan which has the second highest investment rate in education in the world (five percent).

The time-table of a long-term educational plan(2) is as follows:

1963-4	I.	Ceylon India Pakistan	II.	Malaya Philippines Singapore Thailand Sarawak	III.	China Korea Japan
1964-5	I.	Afghanistan Nepal Burma	II.	Cambodia Indonesia Laos Viet-Nam		

It should be noted that significant progress in the extension of the primary school system has been made in a number of Asian countries, but there is always the realization that it is never sufficient to take care of the growing needs of an expanding population. "Thousands of schools have been opened, but dozens of towns and thousands of villages are still without schools."(3)

During the period 1950-1956 the number of Indian children in school rose from 18,294,000 to 25,947,000 and in Malaya it almost doubled. In fifteen Asian countries(4) primary school enrollment rose from 38.7 million in 1950 to more than 66 million in 1960.

In 1960, Japan and Ceylon were the only two countries in Asia which had achieved a primary enrollment of twenty percent of the population. Malaya, Korea, Philippines and Thailand were above fifteen percent; Burma, India, Indonesia, Pakistan and Viet-Nam were between five and ten percent.(5) (See TABLE No. EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA - Enrollment of Primary Schools).

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(1) UNESCO -Report of the Tokyo meeting. p. 38.
(2) Ibid., p. 35.
(3) Fradier, Georges. Op.cit., p. 5.
(4) Afghanistan, Burma,Cambodia,Ceylon,India,Indonesia,Iran,Korea,Laos, Malaya,Nepal,Pakistan,Philippines,Thailand,Viet-Nam (UNESCO Courier, November 1960,p.5).
(5) United Nations - Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation. E/CN/5/346/Rev.1 ST/SOA/42. New York, 1961, page 10.

Qualitative Improvement

It would be a mistake to appraise the educational situation in Asia solely in terms of enrollment indicators in relation to primary education. "Increase in school enrollment does not necessarily mean that the educational situation is improving. We cannot determine, except through such limited indicators as the pupil-teacher ratio, whether the quality of education has remained constant, improved, or declined in different countries. It is evident, however, that recent efforts to expand the quantity of education, meeting limitations of money, teacher supply, and school buildings, have led to an uneasy and shifting relationship between quantity and quality."(1)

The physical aspects of education present great problems, since adequate school buildings are costly. "A visit to a few 'ordinary' schools in the East inspires not only sympathy for the teachers, but also admiration for these poorly but neatly dressed men and women who are at their schools from an early hour each day. Two things about the average school strike one immediately; it is too small for its purpose and it is forbiddingly austere. It may be a straw hut built by the village council or a group of small mud houses, or more often a 'modern' building of bricks and cement, which means it is even less attractive with its treeless courtyard and its dusty school garden."(2)

Often the classroom is unattractive, with its bare walls without even a picture or a map; basic equipment and materials are scarce. The learning process is made more difficult for many children because they are undernourished and subject to deficiency diseases. Steps are being taken in some countries to remedy the situation. Many other difficulties and shortages, such as inadequate text books (there is a shortage of paper in Asia), overcrowded classrooms, militate against efficient instruction.

The Tokyo Meeting of Ministers faced the situation of quantity versus quality in another direction when it said: "A rapid quantitative expansion without due consideration given to its possible effects on quality is a luxury which Asian countries during their formative stages cannot afford...In considering such questions as the kind of balance between the scientific and humanistic aspects of school which would be most helpful for overall development should be explored and related to a country's requirements for trained and qualified personnel."(3)

Demographic Projections and Planning

Demographic projections are an important factor in educational planning, especially over a relatively long period of years. When the Karachi meeting was held in the early part of 1960, the latest census figures were not available. At that time the total population for fifteen of the countries under discussion was 774 million (1959-60), and it was estimated that by 1980, it would be 1,185 million. It was believed that under the plan the number of enrolled primary school children would rise from 62 million in 1960 to

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(1) United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. Report of the World Social Situation. E/CN. 5/324/Rev. 1 ST/SOA 33. New York, April 1957. p. 64.
(2) Fradier. Op.cit., p. 11.
(3) UNESCO. Tokyo Report. p. 73.

237 million in 1980.[1] The following comparisons of some countries show how the figures have actually increased beyond the estimates:

	Estimated figures used at Karachi[2]	Figures of latest official estimate[3]
	(millions)	
INDIA	414.9 (1960)	441.6
INDONESIA	90.7 (1960)	96.7
PHILIPPINES	26.6 (Feb.1960)	29.6
THAILAND	23.7 (1960)	27.1

"There will, therefore, be need to revise the demographic data utilized in the (Karachi) plan in order to arrive at a more accurate estimate of the number of persons involved."[4]

Secondary Education

The Karachi meeting also emphasized that "free and compulsory primary education cannot be attained without a similar expansion of secondary education which has to provide the teachers for the primary school; this enlargement of secondary education in turn will not be possible without an appropriate expansion of higher education in each country."[5]

Evidently, the emphasis in the Karachi Plan on primary education - which all agreed was a basic consideration - produced the concern on the part of some that the post-primary levels of the educational systems might be slowed down in the process. Those who expressed this concern at the Tokyo meeting did so, not merely from the point of view of producing more teachers for the primary school system, important as that is, but also because post-primary education is necessary for the economic and social development of each country.

One Commission report at the Tokyo meeting said that "to 'give all secondary education' is a principle proposed throughout the world. Every possible effort must be made to enable those 15 to 18 years old to receive education and training in some form or other,"[6] and the report ended by stating that "in the future, it is necessary to take a policy which will serve to make vocational training and education by various other schools an integral part of secondary education."[7]

Education for Girls

The status of women is of great importance as a social factor in Asia for, to a large extent, social progress depends on women. "Once they have won the right to education, women demand other rights: to participate in social,

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(1) UNESCO. Tokyo Report. p. 71
(2) Ibid., p. 72.
(3) United Nations - Population and Vital Statistics Report. Data available as of October 1, 1962. New York: United Nations, 1962.
(4) UNESCO. Tokyo Report. p. 72.
(5) UNESCO Chronicle, April 1960, Vol. VI, No.4,p. 135.
(6) UNESCO. Tokyo Report. p. 82.
(7) UNESCO. " " . p. 82.

economic, and, finally, political activities from which they were previously excluded. Women, in fact, know better than men how to combat poverty and slums, unjust working conditions, and bad health and hygiene conditions, as well as ignorance in all its forms. Once emancipated, they demand enough new schools, not only for their sons, but also for their daughters."(1)

In spite of the dead weight of tradition and custom against giving adequate status to women and providing equal opportunities with men for education, there are signs that a change in attitude is taking place and in some countries, it may be noted, women have long enjoyed a measure of freedom. In Ceylon, India and Viet-Nam, for example, outstanding women occupy high positions in political life.

There are two aspects to the position of women in the educational systems, first, the proportion of girls to boys in school enrollment, and secondly, the proportion of women teachers to men teachers. The countries with the highest proportion of girls in school and in the teaching profession are Ceylon, Japan, Burma,Taiwan, Philippines and Thailand, where there are almost as many girls as boys enrolled in primary schools, and as many women teachers as men. In Pakistan only 9.4 percent of the primary school children are girls and 7.5 percent of the teachers are women. However, in secondary schools the percentages are considerably higher.(2) In Japan, where there are as many girls as boys in primary and secondary schools, the proportion of women teachers is only twenty percent of the total teaching staff. This may be accounted for by the inclusion of vocational schools where the teachers are mostly men. (See TABLE No. 23 - EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA).

Adult Education

Statistics seem to indicate that there is a direct relationship between the degree of literacy among the population of a country and the development which results from education. This indicates the importance of literacy programs as a part of adult education.

Literacy work is difficult and generally receives much less attention from governments than it deserves. "Analysis of census data on literacy since 1900 shows that, unless a country's illiteracy was reduced at an average rate of ten percent or more per decade, the absolute number of illiterates tended to increase. This was owing to the rapid population increases that characterize most of the countries with high illiteracy."(3) (See TABLE No. 24- ILLITERACY RATES IN ASIA 1950-1960).

According to this table, it will be seen that in 1960 the countries with the highest literacy rates were Japan (98%), Philippines (75%) and Ceylon (68%). Those with the lowest literacy rates included Pakistan(20%), India (24%) and Malaya (47%). It is being increasingly recognized that literacy figures by themselves do not give the picture as regards the educational level in

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(1) Fradier, Op.cit., p. 6.

(2) International Yearbook of Education. Vol. XXII, 1960. UNESCO. Educational Statistics.

(3) United Nations - Report on World Social Situation 1957. E/CN.5/324/Rev.1 ST/SOA 33. p. 65.

a country. Educators prefer to advocate adult education, or fundamental education. In 1959 Ceylon increased the budget item for adult education by 14 percent over the previous year, and Korea increased a corresponding item in its budget by fifteen percent in 1960.

The highest illiteracy rate is in India and Pakistan, although in each case the rate dropped during the decade 1950-60, in India from 80.7 percent to 76 percent, and in Pakistan from 86.2 percent to 80. According to the 1951 census the illiteracy rate among women in India was 30 percent higher than among men, and it was forty percent higher in rural than in urban areas.

West Pakistan shows a five percent lower literacy rate than East Pakistan. "West Pakistan, where about 23 percent of the total population is urban, has a much higher proportion (49.8 percent) of its total literates in urban areas than in East Pakistan (11.4 percent)."(1) "The literacy rate for females in urban localities of East Pakistan is three times that of the rural areas. In West Pakistan the ratio is 7 to 1."(2) In Pakistan as a whole 28 percent of the males and only 9.3 percent of the women are literate.(3)

The next highest illiteracy rate is that of Malaya and Singapore with 53 percent in 1960. In 1950 it was 60 percent. The illiteracy rate among women is twice that of the men in Malaya and Singapore. The 1960 figures show that Indonesia is the country which has made most progress in reducing its illiteracy rate. In 1950 it had 80-85 percent and in 1960 it was only 40 percent.(4)

In Southeast Asia, according to the rate at which illiteracy was being overcome during the first half of this century, "about one-half of the entire adult Southeast Asian population will be literate by 1980. More rapid progress, of course, is to be desired."(5)

Planning for the Future

Representatives at the Karachi Conference voted unanimously to recommend specific ways by which governments could raise money by special loans, voluntary contributions of local groups, and by levying taxes. At the same time delegates insisted on the need for outside funds. It was hoped that an international fund would be created to help meet the tremendous cost of more than fifty-six billion dollars over a twenty-year period.

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(1) Office of Census Commissioner, Ministry of Home and Kashmir Affairs, Karachi. Population Census of Pakistan 1961 (Literacy and Education) Census Bulletin No. 4, September 1962. Statistical Notes, p. XII.

(2) Ibid., p. XIV.

(3) Ibid., p. VII.

(4) For a discussion of the illiteracy problem, see section "Education", United Nations - Report on the World Social Situation 1957. Op.cit., Chapter V.

(5) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. The Population of South-East Asia (Including Ceylon and China: Taiwan) 1950-80. Report III, Future Population Estimates by Sex and Age. Population Studies No. 30. ST/SOA/Series A/30. New York,1958. p. 48.

By 1980 it is estimated that the total population of these fifteen Asian countries(1) will have reached 1,185,000,000. This means that in twenty years' time these countries should be ready to provide seven years' primary education for 237 million children (compared with four or five years currently provided for sixty to sixty-five million)".(2) This goal of seven years' primary instruction will have to be met on a gradual scale, with plans to include a larger percentage of children each year. "The important fact which stands out is that the peoples and governments are resolute in their determination to vanquish the many obstacles to educational progress. A veritable revolution lies ahead for the under-equipped countries and their largely illiterate populations. But it will be a peaceful and calculated revolution which, in some countries, had been planned to the last details."(3)

Protestant Schools

"The emphasis of Protestantism upon education in Southeast Asia has been one of its major assets. Schools from kindergartens to universities have been established. Whereas Japan pre-empted the field of primary school education for the State, Burma and Thailand permit the missions and churches to operate lower-grade educational institutions, but exclude them from the field of university education."(4)

In Malaya and Singapore Christian missions operate more than half of the government aided English schools and the sixty-three Methodist schools with more than 42,000 students. In Indonesia there are 1500 Christian primary schools and 250 secondary schools.(5) In Thailand there are sixteen Christian Middle Schools, although the proportion of Christian students is low. The government of Burma has placed great emphasis on education, creating 7,000 new schools. "Burma's Christian schools were an important element in the Church's program. Located primarily in the Karen area, 173 primary schools, 31 middle schools,and 28 high schools were in operation shortly after the Japanese evacuation of this land."(6)

The contribution of Christian schools in Asia in the past is beyond question. Referring to the service rendered by these institutions, the Advisory Study stated that "education penetrated into cultures, raised the rate of literacy, elevated the position of women, and permeated society with Christian concepts of human worth and freedom. By its continued efforts on all levels of education it contributed to the modern awakening of many nations and toward emancipation from social, economic, and political tyrannies. Christian institutions put a great premium on integrity, responsibility, and service, and required high standards of accomplishment, thus providing leadership of high cal-

(1) Afghanistan, Burma,Cambodia,Ceylon,India,Indonesia,Iran,Korea,Laos,Malaya, Nepal,Pakistan,Philippines,Thailand,Viet-Nam(UNESCO Courier,Nov.1960.p.5).
(2) Fradier. UNESCO Courier. Op.cit., p. 13.
(3) Ibid. p. 12
(4) Harr, Wilber C.(Ed.) "Frontiers of the Christian World Mission" (since 1938) New York: Harper & Bros. 1962. p. 52 in section on The Christian Mission since 1938: In Southeast Asia, by Winburn T.Thomas.
(5) Ibid., p. 54.
(6) Ibid., p. 53.

ibre in many spheres of life, more especially in medicine, social work, and politics."(1)

However, it must be recognized that "we are now in an era when newly independent countries are giving education first place in their plan for national development and are raising educational standards as fast as possible."(2) The future place of Christian schools in Asia will be carefully studied by the Christian churches in the light of the changed situation.

ACCENT ON YOUTH

According to Richard M.Fagley, "the accent on youth has long been dominant "(3) in the underdeveloped countries of the world as compared with the more industrialized ones. The median age in Europe and the United States is 29; in Asia it is 19. In 1960 there were 1,350 million young people in the 0-19 age group in the world; of these, 810 million were in Asia.

The contrast between the percentage of young people under nineteen years of age in Europe and North America on the other hand, and that of young people in the continents of Asia, Africa and Latin America can be seen in the breakdown of the 1,350 million (under-twenty age group) as follows, in millions:(4)

Europe	152	Asia	810
USSR	87	Africa	120
North America	71	Latin America	103
Oceania	7		
	317		1,033

This preponderance of young people under twenty in Asia raises a number of serious questions related to social development and particularly to education. Fagley considers that "the high proportion of the young in the poorer societies is a handicap in the struggle for economic and social development."(5) It means that an increasing number of young people enter the labor market each year, largely because of inadequacies in the school and college systems. "The competition for the limited number of places in the advanced schools in a country like India places a fearful strain on the young people who aspire to a higher education."(6) Although several Asian governments have increased their educational budgets, the demands are so great because of population growth,they are never sufficient. Fagley believes that Western governments could do much

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(1) An Advisory Study. A working paper for study, published by the Commission on Ecumenical Mission and Relations of the United Presbyterian Church in the U.S.A. New York: October 1961. p. 56.
(2) Ibid., p. 56.
(3) Fagley, Richard M.Paper published in pamphlet titled Youth and Social Change by the Youth Department, World Council of Churches, Geneva,Switzerland. p. 5.
(4) Ibid., p. 4.
(5) " p. 5.
(6) " p. 9.

more to aid educational programs in Asia than they are doing.

The problems facing the student in higher education in most Asian countries are many. In addition to the difficulty of entering a university because of the shortage of buildings, staff, and so on, "there is little personal relation between the faculty and the students, no sense of identity between the student and his university. It is essentially a bookish program."(1)

In some countries the student encounters a serious language problem. Most modern knowledge is in books published in Western languages, and there are very few translations in the native language. Therefore, the student must come to the university with an adequate knowledge of at least one foreign language, or quickly acquire it while a student. Books in any language are in short supply. "The student is usually so poor that he can hardly afford to eat regularly or to supply himself with a place to live,"(2) and thus he is able to buy only very few books.

Thus, for most students in higher education in Asia, conditions are extremely difficult, with crowded classrooms, scarcity of books and language problems. However, in some countries,such as Japan and the Philippines, and to a certain extent Korea, conditions in colleges and universities are more favorable.

In spite of the difficulties we have outlined, it should be noted that the universities and institutions of higher learning in general (such as teacher-training colleges) are agencies of social change in Asia today, much more than in the West. Much of the strategy and leadership for the movements which led to national independence were developed in the universities. As in Latin America, Asian students are not being prepared for life at some future time; they are already participating actively in political life, and accelerating social change. And yet the student finds himself in a dilemma. His country needs him badly, but is not yet ready for him. In the meantime, with new problems and challenges constantly arising, the need for educated leaders in Asia becomes more acute - in education, industry, agriculture, medicine, transportation, government affairs at home and abroad. But the student "has come of age in a society whose aims and structures are still in the process of formation."(3)

The Asian student is subject to frustration and instability in a rapidly changing world. A professor of history in Madras Christian College put it this way,"A young person in Asia today has been described as living with one foot in the eastern world and the other in the western world. But both worlds are changing, giving him a feeling of uncertainty. His faith is undermined by much that comes to him from the West. Science liberates his mind, but often goes further and destroys his faith as well. With faith in his religion destroyed, then a vacuum is created and this emptiness is filled by some materialist ideology like Communism."(4)

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(1) Taylor, Harold. "The Student: A Key Man in Asia" in The New York Times Magazine, July 10, 1960, p. 51.
(2) Ibid., p. 51.
(3) " p. 51.
(4) Devanadan, Chandran. "Presenting Christianity to Youth Today" in National Christian Council Review. India, August 1960. p. 261.

In spite of all the difficulties and obstacles the number of young people seeking a higher education is increasing year by year. "The desire of Asian young people for higher education is mounting with fantastic speed. Two and a half million students are now in our universities and colleges. This is evidence of the need in every sphere of our changing society for well-trained young people, and of the fact that children from many social classes now have an opportunity for higher education."(1)

With industrial and technological development there is a danger of a shift toward utilirarianism in the Asian universities, and away from the humanities and social studies. Shiozuki sees in this a threat to the fundamental purpose of a university, namely, the pursuit of knowledge.(2)

Asian Students in the USA

The number of Asians studying abroad, that is, outside of their own country, increases each year. In 1961 the total number of foreign students in the United States was 58,086. Of these, 37 percent (21,568) were Asian students, a figure which is 12 percent higher than in 1960. In 1961, 56 percent of Asian students in the United States pursued graduate studies and 37 percent were undergraduates.

The Asian countries from which more than one thousand students came to the United States were as follows:

India	5,621	Korea	2,234
Taiwan	4,735	Philippines	1,780
Japan	2,635	Hong Kong	1,597

Countries represented by less than 1,000 students were Indonesia, Viet-Nam, Burma, Singapore and Ceylon.

"Of the 21,568 Far Eastern students, 8,430 or 39 percent, were privately supported and 6,456, almost 30 percent, were self-supporting...A little more than 9 percent - 5,455 - of the total foreign student population reported U.S. Government grants as their source of support. Of these, 2,367, or 43 percent, are Far Easterners."(3)

It is interesting to note the types of studies being followed by Asian students. In 1961, 23 percent studied engineering (the largest number taking mechanical engineering) and 20 percent natural and physical sciences. The major fields of interest were as follows: Engineering, Physical and Natural Sciences, Humanities, Social Sciences, Business Administration, Medical Sciences, Education, and Agriculture.

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(1) Shiozuki, Kentaro. "The Role of the Asian University" in Federation News. November 1962. p. 17.

(2) Ibid., p. 18.

(3) Open Doors 1962. Report on International Exchange. Institute of International Education. June 1962. p. 11.

TABLE NO. 22

ASIAN STUDENTS IN U.S.A.: FIELDS OF MAJOR INTEREST

HOME COUNTRY	Total	Agri-culture	Business Admini-stration	Educa-tion	Engi-neering	Human-ities	Medical Sciences	Physical & Natural Sciences	Social Sciences	All Others	No Answer
BRITISH BORNEO	32	-	-	4	4	8	10	3	3	-	-
BURMA	220	8	14	11	66	36	15	38	22	2	8
CAMBODIA	115	18	-	6	19	43	6	15	7	-	1
CEYLON	83	10	2	16	5	15	5	21	8	-	1
CHINA: Taiwan	4,735	79	259	144	1,395	680	251	1,346	459	33	89
FED. of MALAYA	151	6	9	9	19	36	16	35	17	-	4
HONG KONG	1,597	7	86	46	417	280	174	415	138	14	20
INDIA	5,621	226	504	215	1,921	430	326	1,186	621	20	172
INDONESIA	653	22	84	43	98	98	47	81	156	11	13
JAPAN	2,635	24	410	127	251	809	91	343	481	40	59
KOREA	2,234	21	184	70	324	476	117	434	548	16	44
LAOS	26	1	-	3	2	7	-	2	11	-	-
MACAU	48	-	8	-	10	13	4	8	5	-	-
NEPAL	35	-	3	2	7	2	4	6	10	1	-
PAKISTAN	748	29	40	63	180	75	35	161	145	8	12
PHILIPPINES	1,780	49	225	178	148	322	264	187	343	30	34
RYUKYU ISL.	91	3	11	6	8	27	1	10	21	2	2
SINGAPORE	132	4	11	8	23	33	13	29	9	1	1
THAILAND	990	37	128	79	185	127	87	119	186	24	18
VIET-NAM	388	20	23	45	52	64	30	67	69	8	10
OTHERS	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
OCEANIA:											
AUSTRALIA	429	27	37	30	34	109	58	63	63	2	6
NEW ZEALAND	155	2	5	22	7	39	12	40	22	4	2
TOTAL	22,900	593	2,043	1,127	5,175	3,729	1,566	4,611	3,344	216	496

Source: Open Doors 1962. Report on International Exchange. New York: Institute of International Education, June 1962. pp. 24 and 26.

TABLE No. 23

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA

Country	Type of Education(a)	Year	No. of Schools	TEACHING STAFF Total	TEACHING STAFF Female	STUDENTS ENROLLED Total	STUDENTS ENROLLED Female
SOUTH ASIA							
CEYLON	Pre-school	1960	103	697	623	24,395	11,678
	Primary	1960					
	Secondary	1960	70,875	70,875	35,570	2,209,487	1,027,305
	Technical	1960					
	Teacher-training	1960	22	325	89	4,613	1,846
	Higher	1958	3	291	...	5,279	866
	Special	1960	10	69	37	1,120	210
INDIA	Pre-school	1958	1,164	2,939	2,601	80,118	37,751
	Primary	1958	299,220	716,665	126,366	24,101,399(a)	7,400,530(a)
	Secondary	1958	58,012	478,276	95,725	14,078,334(a)	3,852,748(a)
	Technical	1958	2,526	14,300	1,927	238,794	42,889
	Teacher-training	1958	1,145	...	...	108,681	30,547
	Higher	1958	934	...	...	913,380	134,543
NEPAL	Primary	1960	...	4,200	...	150,000	...
	Secondary	1960	...	1,900	...	62,000	...
	Teacher-training	1960	...	85	...	1,100	...
	Higher	1960	...	292	...	4,633	...
PAKISTAN	Primary	1958	44,222	121,429	9,135	4,469,490	420,991
	Secondary	1958	6,030	53,603	7,450	1,345,549	182,602
	Technical	1958	115	...	...	11,381	2,690
	Teacher-training	1958	97	...	...	9,646	2,073
	Higher	1958	236	...	...	126,048	12,975
	Special	1958	48	...	...	4,890	...

(Continued) -

TABLE 23 (Cont'd)
EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA

Country	Type of Education[a]	Year	No. of Schools	TEACHING STAFF Total	TEACHING STAFF Female	STUDENTS ENROLLED Total	STUDENTS ENROLLED Female
SOUTHEAST ASIA							
BURMA	Primary[b]	1959	11,557	36,590	...	1,543,874	...
	Secondary	1959	1,482	7,555[b]	...	332,576	...
	Technical[b]	1958	7	...	...	1,687	...
	Teacher-training	1958	6	...	...	2,894	...
	Higher	1958	1	615	...	12,673	3,405
INDONESIA	Pre-school	1957	1,098	2,237	...	77,175	...
	Primary	1959	35,540	205,860	...	8,220,465	3,515,789
	Secondary	1959	4,495	30,349	5,449	845,642	149,941
	Technical	1959	1,341	15,703	3,601	95,020	21,775
	Teacher-training	1959	1,274	15,003	...	129,711	41,772
	Higher	1959	136	4,133	413	49,557	8,070
MALAYA (Federation of)	Pre-school	1960	...	...	...	8,163	3,533
	Primary	1960	4,993	40,107	13,296	1,104,570	457,304
	Secondary	1960	399	5,665	1,501	152,124	51,016
	Technical	1960	28	235	...	7,628	...
	Teacher-training	1960	...	445	96	8,108	3,195
	Higher	1960	3	262	26	1,822	323
PHILIPPINES	Pre-school	1959	193	450	450	14,416	7,165
	Primary	1958	29,802	102,434[b]	...	3,970,498	...
	Secondary	1958	1,554	...	...	579,086	...
	Technical	1958	640	...	...	105,689	...
	Teacher-training	1957	...	...	...	37,672	31,936
	Higher	1957	...	...	...	211,901	84,831
	Special	1957	3	29	23	265	109

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 23 (Cont'd)
EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA

Country	Type of Education(a)	Year	No. of Schools	TEACHING STAFF Total	TEACHING STAFF Female	STUDENTS ENROLLED Total	STUDENTS ENROLLED Female
SOUTHEAST ASIA(Cont'd)							
SINGAPORE	Pre-school	1960	40	160	154	5,464	2,352
	Primary	1960	589	8,809	4,358	289,172	127,498
	Secondary	1960	121	2,024	761	58,710	22,539
	Technical	1960	5	64	22	1,345	566
	Teacher-training	1960	1	67	23	2,327	1,202
	Higher	1960	3	357	29	5,808	857
THAILAND	Pre-school	1960	1,025	1,648	1,488	38,830	18,480
	Primary	1959	...	100,584	27,800	3,432,662	...
	Secondary	1959	...	18,991	...	483,107	...
	Technical	1959	...	4,790	...	90,380	...
	Teacher-training	1959	...	1,293	...	15,913	...
	Higher	1960	8	3,739	1,592	54,931	20,998
	Special	1960	6	175	110	2,995	1,132
VIET-NAM (Republic)	Pre-school	1957	57	295	205	14,055	6,665
	Primary	1959	6,132	22,573	7,807	1,205,999	473,329
	Secondary	1959	371	4,715	742	159,825	50,807
	Technical	1959	181	444	...	8,391	...
	Teacher-training	1959	14	228	25	2,491	634
	Higher	1959	10	308	17	8,194	1,426
	Special	1959	2	6	2	57	12
North Borneo	Primary	1959	...	...	...	41,700	15,000
	Secondary	1959	...	...	...	3,397	1,050
	Technical	1959	...	...	...	70	-
	Teacher-training	1959	...	...	...	170	60
Brunei	Primary	1959	...	...	...	14,820	5,930
	Secondary	1959	...	...	...	1,120	360
	Technical	1959	...	...	...	140	-
	Teacher-training	1959	...	...	...	60	-

(Continued)

TABLE No. 23 (Cont'd)

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA

Country	Type of Education(a)	Year	No. of Schools	TEACHING STAFF Total	TEACHING STAFF Female	STUDENTS ENROLLED Total	STUDENTS ENROLLED Female
SOUTHEAST ASIA(Cont'd)							
Sarawak	Pre-school	1960	18	44	39	1,417	625
	Primary(c)	1960	846	2,469	853	77,060	30,008
	Secondary(c)	1960	...	900	320	26,979	9,621
	Technical	1960	1	1	-	8	7
	Teacher-training	1960	3	26	5	306	78
CAMBODIA	Primary	1959	3,707	14,294	...	563,583	...
	Secondary	1959	77	772	...	24,591	...
	Technical	1959	8	113	...	1,733	...
	Teacher-training	1959	3	61	...	1,168	...
	Higher	1959	4	84	...	684	...
LAOS	Pre-school	1958	7	18	14	456	232
	Primary	1958	1,458(b)	2,639(b)	...	101,099	28,783
	Secondary(d)	1958	12	122	...	2,402	483
PORTUGUESE TIMOR	Primary	1959	91	177	...	5,770	1,739
	Secondary	1959	3	23	...	290	69
	Technical	1958	1	6	...	48	...
FAR EAST							
CHINA	Pre-school	1955	7,129	22,361	...	561,594	...
	Primary	1955	504,000	1,594,000	...	53,126,000	...
	Secondary	1955)		...	...)		...
	Technical	1955)	5,120	...	...)	3,899,626	...
	Teacher-training	1955	555	19,621	...	280,203	...
	Higher	1955	194	42,066	...	393,000	...
	Special	1955	57	433	...	5,312	...

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 23 (Cont'd)
EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA

Country	Type of Education(a)	Year	No. of Schools	TEACHING STAFF Total	TEACHING STAFF Female	STUDENTS ENROLLED Total	STUDENTS ENROLLED Female
FAR EAST(Cont'd)							
KOREA (Republic)	Pre-school	1959	297	1,150	800	15,795	7,774
	Primary	1959	4,576	61,059	11,368	3,549,610	1,579,319
	Secondary	1959	1,356	17,193	...	618,025	159,309
	Technical	1959	280	3,997	...	101,000	7,391
	Teacher-training	1959	26	...	...	18,726	7,630
	Higher	1959	56	3,377	243	73,415	11,380
	Special	1959	5	112	18	925	285
RYUKYU ISLANDS	Pre-school	1960	35	209	177	5,252	2,585
	Primary	1960	228	3,842	2,490	163,209	79,925
	Secondary(e)	1960	180	2,451	537	67,506	33,539
	Technical	1960	9	433	56	8,421	2,432
	Higher	1960	4	332	32	4,462	1,404
	Special	1960	4	31	16	228	93
OCEANIA							
AUSTRALIA	Pre-school	1957	...	...	...	154,300	75,607
	Primary	1959	7,250 (b)	69,128	38,680	1,547,635	752,545
	Secondary	1959	...			504,501	241,330
	Technical	1957	...	...	...	64,210(f)	1,180
	Teacher-training	1959	25	...	...	13,800	8,200
	Higher	1959	70	...	...	72,200	24,800
NEW ZEALAND	Pre-school	1959	333	557	...	18,778	...
	Primary	1959	2,504	13,054	7,087	416,316	202,061
	Secondary(g)	1959	361	5,075	1,865	108,392	52,330
	Teacher-training	1959	6	...	...	4,854	3,331
	Higher	1959	6	683	58	14,388	3,525
	Special	1959	...	269	204	2,125	...

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 23 (Cont'd)

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA

Country	Type of Education(a)	Year	No. of Schools	TEACHING STAFF Total	TEACHING STAFF Female	STUDENTS ENROLLED Total	STUDENTS ENROLLED Female
FAR EAST (cont'd)							
HONG KONG	Pre-school	1959	236	743	726	22,725	9,891
	Primary(c)	1959	1,053	9,007	5,280	256,695	110,012
	Secondary(c)	1959	949	5,737	2,648	138,373	56,242
	Technical	1959	20	141	43	2,842	936
	Teacher-training	1959	2	...	...	720	432
	Higher	1959	10	599	87	4,298	1,353
	Special	1959	...	...	...	743	...
MACAU	Pre-school	1957	...	...	...	5,577	2,399
	Primary	1959	184	1,703	...	46,016	19,312
	Secondary	1959	19	356	...	4,810	2,142
	Technical	1959	12	134	...	1,861	739
TAIWAN	Pre-school	1959	620	1,845	1,835	73,235	32,754
	Primary	1959	1,757	38,289	14,355	1,777,118	830,077
	Secondary	1959	226	10,190	2,069	232,156	78,653
	Technical	1959	109	4,535	621	77,800	21,342
	Teacher-training	1959	11	929	245	11,332	4,856
	Higher	1959	21	2,379	333	25,762	4,917
	Special	1959	2	141	67	1,246	452
JAPAN	Pre-school	1960	7,206	31,329	28,841	742,327	395,836
	Primary	1960	26,858	360,660	163,438	12,590,680	6,166,102
	Secondary	1960	17,584	337,707	...	9,125,989	4,365,086
	Technical	1960	...	...	...	1,345,132	523,918
	Teacher-training	1960)	525	50,828	4,944	59,835	25,553
	Higher	1960)				651,783	116,938
	Special	1960	225	6,091	2,414	35,778	15,753

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 23 (Cont'd)
EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ASIA

Country	Type of Education(a)	Year	No. of Schools	TEACHING STAFF Total	TEACHING STAFF Female	STUDENTS ENROLLED Total	STUDENTS ENROLLED Female
OCEANIA (Cont'd)							
Netherlands New Guinea	Pre-school	1959	14	14	14	416	197
	Primary	1959	656	1,247	105	37,574	16,516
	Secondary	1959	8	46	11	750	262
	Technical	1959	4	18	-	271	-
	Teacher-training	1959	5	21	3	453	43

Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

(a) Secondary includes enrollment of primary departments attached to middle and high schools.

(b) Public schools only.

(c) Figures based on new definition not comparable with those published previously in the U.N. Statistical Yearbook (grades 5 and higher in primary schools are now considered as belonging to secondary education).

(d) Including technical education and teacher-training.

(e) Including teacher-training.

(f) Mostly part-time students.

(g) Including technical education.

Note: The figures usually refer to both official (public) and independent(private) schools, and to the school year beginning in the year stated. They generally exclude adult education, apprenticeship courses and correspondence schools.

United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs.
Statistical Yearbook 1961. Sales No.: 62-XVII-I. New York, 1961.
Table No. 178, p. 612.

TABLE No. 24

ILLITERACY RATES IN ASIA 1950 - 1960

Country	ILLITERACY RATES 1950(1)	1960(2)
SOUTH ASIA		
Ceylon	35-40%	32%
India	80-85%	76%
Nepal	95-99%	95%
Pakistan	80-85%	80%
Afghanistan	95-99%	95%
Bhutan	95-99%	n.a.
Maldive Islands	25-30%	n.a.
SOUTHEAST ASIA		
Burma	40-45%	40%
Indonesia	80-85%	40%
Federation of Malaya	60-65%	53%
Philippines	35-40%	25%
Singapore	50-55%	n.a.
Thailand	45-50%	36%
Viet-Nam,North)	80-85% (a)	n.a.
Republic of Viet-Nam)		
British Borneo		
Brunei	70-75%	n.a.
N.Borneo	80-85%	n.a.
Sarawak	80-85%	n.a.
Cambodia	80-85%	67%
Laos	80-85%	80%
Portuguese Timor	95-99%	n.a.
FAR EAST		
China (Mainland)	50-55%(a)	30-40%
Hong Kong	40-45%	n.a.
Macau	40-45%	n.a.
Mongolian People's Republic	40-45%	25%
Taiwan		38%
Japan	2-3%	2%
Korea,North)	60-65%(a)	n.a.
Republic of Korea)		35%
Ryukyu Islands		
Okinawa	25-30%	n.a.
OCEANIA		
Australia	1-2%	1-2%
New Zealand	1-2%	1-2%
Netherlands New Guinea	90-95%	n.a.

(a) Boundaries as at end of World War II.

n.a.- not available.

(1) UNESCO -World Illiteracy at Mid-Century. A Statistical Study. Monographs on Fundamental Education. Paris, 1957.

(2) A World of Facts. Civic Education Service, Inc. 1961.

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH PROGRAMS

Health Conditions and Problems

Information on health conditions in the various countries of Asia is at present far from adequate for a satisfactory review of the situation. Among the statistical data commonly used to designate the state of health in a country or population, the experts find that general mortality, expectation of life, and infant mortality rates are better indicators of health than other types of information. For example, the ratios of physicians and hospital beds per unit of population are considered unsuitable, because they give no indication of the distribution and utilization of these facilities and, therefore, do not necessarily reflect the health situation of the population.(1)

The tables in this study giving the general mortality, expectation of life and infant mortality rates, show a continuing decline of the general and infant mortality rates in practically all the countries listed. (See Table No. BIRTHS and DEATHS: CURRENT STATISTICS FOR ASIA.) The most rapid progress has taken place in economically less developed areas where mass diseases such as malaria have been brought under control. However, certain communicable diseases, either in epidemic or endemic form, are still a serious health problem, and in the countries where this is true, statistics on communicable diseases are seldom available or reliable. A concerted effort has been made by many Governments to ensure (with the minimum of interference in international traffic) the maximum security against the spread of the major epidemic diseases (smallpox, plague, cholera, yellow fever, typhus and relapsing fever) from one country to another. Except for smallpox, there have been no recent serious outbreaks of the major epidemic diseases in any part of the world. There have been comparatively few human cases of plague, except in India, Burma, and Indonesia; it has not invaded fresh areas.

Epidemics of influenza have been widely reported, and especially in Japan and the Philippines. In some of the virus infections, the symptoms vary in nature and severity in different epidemics. Close study of the symptoms and careful research on the nature of the virus causing a particular outbreak must, therefore, be continued in order to devise effective precautionary measures. Polio and hepatitis are endemic in India.

The extensive DDT-residual spray work carried out in many countries has greatly increased the number of people protected against this disease. For example, in six countries of Asia (Afghanistan, Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia and Thailand), 1956 estimates indicate that the malaria control programs have already directly protected 121 million people out of 250 million living in the malarious areas.(2)

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(1) World Health Organization, Report of the Study Group on the Measurement of Levels of Health. WHO/PHA/25, 1955. p. 13.

(2) United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation. E/CN.5/324/Rev. 1 ST/SOA/33. April 1957. p. 32.

Health Promotion and Protection

Progress in health is not to be judged merely by the reduction of mortality rates or the control or prevention of specified diseases. Good health is a positive concept, which involves general protection of the individual against sickness and the promotion of a general state of well-being. This is recognized in the growing emphasis that is being given by national health administrations to the healthy development of children, the health education and health consciousness of the public. The recent development in the use of atomic energy has also brought to attention the health problems involved and the need for protective measures against exposure to excessive radiation.

It does appear, from scattered data on infant mortality and from other sources, that the state of health of children in many countries in Asia is improving, partly as a result of the attention given to maternal care and child health services. Efforts have been made to extend these services to rural areas and to link the preventive and curative aspects. Nevertheless, children in many countries still suffer from under-nutrition, which may have serious implications for subsequent adult health. The diet of children in most of the under-developed areas is deficient in animal protein. Skimmed milk powder is at present being widely distributed and used for feeding the weaned child, or in school feeding programs, but a lasting solution to the problem of child malnutrition is still being sought. Research into the ways and means of using locally available sources of protein for child feeding is being carried out in India.

Provision of Health Services

As the concept of health has undergone considerable evolutionary change during recent years, the scope of health services has been greatly broadened. In particular, their extension into rural areas has intensified the shortage of trained staff, and has stimulated the creation of new centers for the training of various types of auxiliary health workers.

The importance of the family unit as an element in health promotion is increasingly recognized, and home-visiting services are being developed considerably, as part of maternal and child health or more general health programs. The health programs of urbanization, particularly in the field of environmental sanitation, are receiving more attention.

As Governments assume increasing responsibilities in providing health services for their peoples, three definite lines of action have been observed:(1)

(1) The designing of indicators for the measurement of levels of health;

(2) Surveys and field investigations to determine the state of health of a nation, and to study the organization of health services with respect to different patterns and stages of social and economic development;

(3) Efforts to improve the organization of health services.

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(1) United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. International Survey of Programmes of Social Development 1959. E/CN.5/332 ST/SOA/39. p. 8.

In planning improvements in the health services, it is being found more and more generally that decentralization of health authority must be strengthened, if adequate services are to be brought within reach of the whole population. The only reasonable chance of reaching the goals set lies in long-term planning, whereby the services may be built up little by little, with adequate emphasis on rural health, as funds become available and health staff can be provided.

In Asia the concentration of the medical profession in urban areas (roughly 85 percent) and the predominant development of health services in cities have deprived country dwellers of modern medical services in many areas. Industrialization without proper economic and social planning has further aggravated this tendency. The progress of health protection and promotion in a rural population depends on the economic and social condition of the area. Health can only advance when the standard of living of the population is improved.

The Rural Health Conference, which was held in New Delhi under the auspices of the World Health Organization in October 1957, provided further evidence of the world-wide interest in improving rural health services. At this Conference, representatives of Aghanistan, Burma,Ceylon,India, Indonesia, Nepal and Thailand stated that each country had undertaken a program to provide health care, curative and preventive for their rural populations. Services ultimately would extend into all their rural areas, based on "rural health centers, as the outposts of an administrative and supervisory network of health organizations from the central Ministry of Health to the periphery."(1)

It was recognized that if maximum benefits are to be derived from efforts to reconstruct rural areas, health must go hand in hand with other welfare and development programs. India is one of the most striking examples of a country which has set itself the task of providing an integrated preventive and curative medical service in the rural areas, where 80 percent of its huge population live. In the Second Five-Year Plan, it was intended that India would be entirely covered by Community Development and National Extension Service Blocks, each covering 100 villages and a population of 65,000. In 1,100 of these blocks, there would be intensive development of rural health services, based on primary health units, as against 725 established under the First Five-Year Plan. These are in addition to the normal development of State Health Programs. As in the Second Plan, specific programs have been formulated for the Third Plan(2) for improvement of environmental sanitation, specially rural and urban water supply, control of communicable diseases, organization of institutional facilities for providing health services and for the training of medical and health personnel, and provision of services such as maternal and child welfare, health education and nutrition.

The expansion and extension of health programs in Asia has brought into sharp focus the urgent need for more trained personnel. Of these, the doctor is perhaps the central figure, and numerical shortages of this category of

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(1) "Report on Regional Rural Health Conference, New Delhi,India". (WHO unpublished document, SEA/RH/9), as reported in United Nations-International Survey of Programmes of Social Development 1959. Op.cit., p. 10.

(2) See Chapter XXXII "Health and Family Planning". Third Five-Year Plan. Government of India, Planning Commission. Delhi, Government of India Press, 1961.

health worker have been proclaimed in all but very few countries. "In the years since the end of the Second World War, more than 100 newly-established medical schools have been added to the approximately 550 already in existence (in the more under-developed areas of the world), but since a school's yield will not begin to make itself felt until almost a decade after its establishment, the impact of these 100 institutions cannot yet be clearly discerned. If the average annual output of each school is 50, the creation of new schools will shortly account for an increment of 5,000 doctors annually."(1)

Among the countries which have created a number of medical schools in recent years, may be listed Taiwan, India, Indonesia, Japan, Pakistan and the Philippines.(2)

While not recognized as medical practitioners, the category of auxiliary personnel, known variously as medical assistant, medical aide or health assistant, still carries an appreciable responsibility for health services in a number of areas. Institutions for training auxiliary health workers in two-year and three-year courses exist in Burma, Cambodia, India, Indonesia and the Republic of Viet-Nam.

Nursing Services

Concepts regarding the function of nurses and the training needed by them have broadened in recent years, and their status as members of the health team has gradually risen. There has been considerable development of nursing schools, including an improved standard of teaching. Until recently, nurse training was essentially through mission hospitals. However, in many countries where the need is most pressing, opportunity for secondary education is limited, and even girls with sufficient basic education may be discouraged by the poor status traditionally accorded to nurses. Furthermore, since nursing has most frequently been considered women's work, the status which women hold in society is important.

"With WHO assistance, Burma, India, Indonesia, Malaya and Thailand now have requested and received help in preparing nursing instructors or tutors; India, Indonesia and Japan have also received assistance in the establishment of their first course for the preparation of midwifery tutors. The program in Japan illustrates an interesting trend in post-basic education. The Government asked WHO to help them develop an educational program at the Institute of Public Health, Tokyo, to prepare teachers for schools of nursing, of public health nursing and of midwifery. One well-qualified and experienced nursing educator was appointed to work in this project with the Japanese members of the faculty of the Institute. The advantage of this system has been the preparation of teachers and supervisors for all fields of nursing and midwifery in one institution with a common core of subjects in the curriculum."(3)

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(1) United Nations - International Survey of Programmes of Social Development 1959. Op. cit., p. 22.

(2) See World Directory of Medical Schools, second edition, published by WHO in 1957.

(3) United Nations - International Survey of Programmes of Social Development 1959. Op. cit., p. 18.

Until 1955, there were only six countries in the world where young women could receive basic preparation for nursing through a recognized university program. Taiwan has also started its first degree program. Health services are expanding rapidly in this country and new schools of nursing are being established. The University program provides opportunities within the country for nurses to be prepared for teaching, supervisory and administrative positions, rather than having to obtain this training entirely through fellowship study abroad. As programs for general nursing have become established, greater attention is being given to training in specialties, such as psychiatric nursing. India and Singapore have been assisted in the development of training in this field. Perhaps one of the very serious drawbacks in some countries is the complete lack of nursing textbooks and other teaching materials, and nursing manuals suited to local conditions, and in the language of instruction used in the schools of nursing, having been produced, for example, in Taiwan, India, and the Republic of Viet-Nam.

Health Education of the Public

Health authorities recognize that the effectiveness of health services depends,to a considerable degree,on the extent to which the lay public assumes personal and community responsibility,and participates in health programs on a well-informed basis. The availability of preventive and curative health services is a factor of major importance, since more effective health education results can be obtained when people have access to direct technical advice,and the services of professional and auxiliary medical, nursing and midwifery personnel, sanitation workers and others.

There continues to be some tendency to consider health education aspects of health programs primarily as a matter of producing illustrative material, and various types of audio-visual aids,for purposes of disseminating health information to the public. A more comprehensive and personal approach is needed, with emphasis on educational measures which encourage initiative, self-help, mutual help, and the active co-operation of people in health programs. In-service training activities have been carried out in Burma, Ceylon, India, and the Philippines. A graduate training course for workers specializing in health education has been established at the Institute of Hygiene of the University of the Philippines.

In three countries of Southeast Asia, joint committees of health and education leaders have been established at the national level,for the primary purpose of co-ordinating efforts for the promotion of school health education.

Environmental Sanitation

Many aspects of sanitation are predominantly of an engineering or environmental hygiene nature, such as water supply or waste disposal, but many others, such as the effects of good sanitation on child health, the application of flourides to drinking water as a measure for improving dental health, or the development of better insecticides in support of malaria eradication, should be an integral part of all public health programs.

The rural environment presents its own unique problems. One of the recent demonstration projects is in the State of Kerala, India. "WHO assigned a santary engineer and a health inspector to work with and advise an Indian team of twenty-five persons in organizing and running a rural sanitation program.

The project has four aims: to develop cheap and acceptable types of wells and latrines; to construct or help construct such facilities for a rural population of about 100,000; to train sanitary inspectors, health aides, well drillers and other technicians, and to carry out a program of health education that will ensure public and individual support and cooperation. The latrines and wells are no free gifts. Each household must contribute time, labor and local materials."(1) This project is serving as a prototype for other projects run by the Indian states without international assistance.

The improvement of urban sanitation calls for a different approach. One step has been the preparation of an international standard of drinking water quality, to the end that water considered "safe" in Calcutta or Bangkok would also be considered safe in Buenos Aires or London. In North Borneo, the Government recognized the need to construct modern sewer systems in seven municipal areas. However, it is not enough to build water plants, sewage treatment and mechanical composting plants. Without skilled operation and maintenance such plants deteriorate rapidly, and their benefit may be lost.

Problems of a long-term nature have included the development of new pesticides and improved formulations.

"In theory, any country could move at once toward a very high level of sanitation, by spending large sums of money on the most modern types of equipment and methods, and concentrating a large number of technically trained people on this single elment of national development, but it is very likely that it would not be in the national interest to divert funds and skills on this scale away from agriculture, industry, commerce, education and other forms of economic and social development. National growth must be balanced, and all programs should be geared together so that none move too far ahead nor fall too far behind."(2)

Food Production and Nutrition

In most countries of Asia, food production has hardly kept pace with population growth. Levels of nutrition in this area remain the lowest in the world. The Southeast Asia Regional Director of WHO, in 1960, singled out nutrition as the "most distressing public health problem" of the region.(3) Although there have been encouraging increases in per capita domestic production since 1954-55, the situation is worse than what it was a quarter of a century ago; the limited dietary gains have depended to a large extent on increase of food imports, derived in part from the surplus production of rich industrial nations. Consumption of animal protein in this region is particularly low, and the two countries with lowest consumption, India and Pakistan, have barely maintained previous levels of six and eight grammes daily per capita.

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(1) United Nations - International Survey of Programmes of Social Development, 1959. Op. cit., p. 24.

(2) Ibid., p. 24.

For a detailed discussion of "Health Programmes" see Chapter II, International Survey of Programmes of Social Development. United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. E/CN.5/332 ST/SOA/39. 1959.

(3) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation, 1961. E/CN.5/346/Rev. 1 ST/SOA/42. New York, 1961. pp. 4-6.

TABLE NO. 25
CALORIE SUPPLIES MEASURED AGAINST REQUIREMENTS(1)
(Calories per capita per diem)

COUNTRY	CALORIES			Difference from Requirements	
	Estimated Requirements	Early post-war	Recent	Early post-war	Recent
Ceylon	2,270	1,970	1,940	- 13.2	- 14.6
India	2,250	1,700	1,850	- 24.4	- 17.8
Japan	2,330	2,100	2,160	- 9.9	- 7.3
Pakistan	2,300	2,020	2,180	- 12.2	- 5.2
Philippines	2,230	1,960	1,960	- 12.1	- 12.1
Australia	2,620	3,160	3,040	+ 20.6	+ 11.6
New Zealand	2,670	3,250	3,310	+ 21.7	+ 12.4

Protestant Medical Missions

Medical missions is, perhaps, the oldest functional missionary enterprise, dating back to the middle of the nineteenth century. Following the pioneering era in medical missions came that of training,of hospitals and sanitaria, and a growing influence on government policies and subsidies for clinical and health education programs. Christian medicine continues to carry the responsibility more than ever in contemporary Asian society, the person-to-person approach reflecting a truly Christian healing ministry. To carry on this program more effectively, the Christian Medical Council for Overseas Work(2) provides information for greater correlation of efforts among mission boards at the home base and integration of activities on the field, relating medical work more closely to the life of the local churches, to government health programs and to the growing Christian professional leadership. Through its offices, Interchurch Medical Assistance, Inc. has been organized as an agency for all mission boards,for the distribution of free drugs and medical supplies to needy patients abroad.

In all of Asia, there are only three Christian medical colleges for the training of indigenous personnel: Vellore, in South India; Ludhiana, in North India; and Yonsei-Severence, in Seoul, Korea. Vellore's hospital medical staff numbers approximately 159 full-time doctors, 174 researchers and technicians, and 224 graduate nurses. Altogether there are 761 beds, housed in modern,well-equipped buildings, and more than 300,000 patients are treated each year. The Medical College, now co-educational, has 342 medical students, 200 nursing students, and 58 graduate students. The Vellore Christian Medical College and Hospital has a world reputation in orthopedics, thoracic and neurosurgery. Through its rural health centers and roadside dispensaries, it brings healing

(1) United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation 1957. E/CN.5/324/Rev. 1 ST/SOA/33. New York, 1957. p. 61.

(2) The executive of Christian Medical Council, with headquarters at 475 Riverside Drive, New York 27, N.Y., is assisting the American Medical Association in a new program of professional assistance in mission hospitals and medical missionaries of both Protestant and Roman Catholic persuasion.

and a program of preventive medicine to villages. The New Life Center is helping to rehabilitate scores of leprosy patients; and special "eye camps" are handling as many as 20,000 cases a year.

The Christian Medical College and Hospital of Ludhiana in North India is also attempting to meet India's need for doctors and nurses. Its medical classes average fifty students, who are trained in a 500-bed hospital by a senior staff of seventy-two specialists. Today more than 45,000 patients are treated annually.

Yonsei Medical Center in Seoul, Korea is the only Christian medical college in Asia east of India. It includes the 300-bed hospital; the Medical Science Building, or college center for the education of doctors and nurses; the out-patient building, where services include the treatment of TB patients at home as well as daily care of thousands who come to the Center; the Crippled Children's Center, with beds for 25 children and a complete modern rehabilitation program, the only one of its kind in Korea; a Nurses' Training School and dormitory.

Other Protestant medical programs in Asia which should be noted are the following:

Japan	St. Luke's International Hospital (Tokyo)
Korea (South)	Presbyterian Medical Center (Chonju) Presbyterian Hospital (Taegu)
Taiwan	Mackay Memorial Hospital (Taipei)
Philippines	Silliman University Mission Hospital (Dumaguete City) Cebu Community Hospital (Cebu City) St. Luke's Hospital (Quezon City) Iloilo Mission Hospital (Iloilo City)
Hong Kong	Nethersole Hospital Haven of Hope (T.B. Sanatorium)
Thailand	Bangkok Sanitarium and Hospital The Bangkok Christian Hospital McCormick Hospital (Chiengmai)
Burma	Moulmein Christian Hospital (Moulmein) Rangoon Seventh Day Adventist Hospital (Rangoon)
India	Clara Swain Hospital (Bareilly, Rae Barali) Miraj Medical Center (Miraj)
West Pakistan	United Christian Hospital (Lahore)
Nepal	United Medical Mission

Steven M. Spencer, an editor of the Saturday Evening Post, in giving his firsthand report from the Far East, writes that "Asia has all the health problems we have--plus several peculiar to the tropics--and she has most of them in greater number and in exaggerated form. Her sick people are sicker than ours, suffering as they do from such added factors as extreme protein

deficiency, poor housing, delay in seeking treatment or the damaging 'cures' of untrained though often well-intentioned 'healers'. One reason the unqualified practitioners do a thriving business is that trained doctors are in such short supply, and few of them will practice in the rural villages, where the majority of Asians live...This is the background against which the small but influential army of western medical missionaries has been working for a century and a half...Their role, in recent years, has changed. Where once the missionaries operated with a monopoly of scientific skills, today they are 'fraternal workers', practicing shoulder to shoulder with, and sometimes subordinate to, well-trained 'national' doctors and nurses...Many of the hospitals, though still supported partly by churches in America and Europe, are now administered by national Christian churches, such as the Church of Christ in Thailand, and have national physicians and medical directors."(1)

TABLE No. 26

PROTESTANT MEDICAL MISSIONS IN ASIA(2)

Country	Hospitals	Dispensaries	Sanitaria	No.of Beds	No. of In-patients annually	No.of Out-patients annually	Leprosaria
Japan	15	26	12	3,495	32,628	233,126	-
Korea	10	5	-	985	60,824	173,221	-
Taiwan	5	2	1	213	9,910	36,370	3
Okinawa	-	2	-	-	-	-	1
Hong Kong	1	14	2	260	5,095	-	1
Philippines	17	15	1	1,351	43,420	213,198	1
Indonesia	38	20	-	5,939	113,600	103,719	-
Malaya	4	6	1	314	3,914	36,421	-
Thailand	9	7	-	643	23,642	201,260	3
Burma	9	19	-	1,008	63,721	113,163	2
Borneo	1	1	-	26	529	3,185	-
India	227	66	9	18,344	404,269	2,426,672	64
Pakistan							
East	4	4	-	338	5,225	54,627	1
West	20	4	-	1,597	31,648	257,274	1
Ceylon	3	1	-	393	15,644	60,559	1

(1) Spencer, Steven M. "The World's Toughest Medical Problems" - reprint of article in the Saturday Evening Post, March 12, 1960.

(2) Directory of Protestant Medical Missions, compiled by Arthur W.March. A joint project of the Christian Medical Council for Overseas Work and the Missionary Research Library, and published by the Missionary Research Library, New York, 1959.

TABLE NO. 27
MEDICAL PERSONNEL
(United Nations Report)

COUNTRY	Year	Physicians	Dentists	Midwives	Pharmacists
SOUTH ASIA					
Ceylon	1958	1,997	162	2,410	...
India	1956	76,916	3,676	24,822	30,536
Pakistan	1954	5,497	...	...	...
SOUTHEAST ASIA					
Burma	1958	708	17	2,555	...
Indonesia	1959	954	120	1,885	73
Fed. of Malaya	1957	857	105	641	60
Philippines	1958	2,559	312	2,076	213
Singapore	1958	676	90	272	91
Thailand	1958	3,098	215	188	760
Rep. of Viet-Nam	1958	549	74	562	271
British Borneo:					
Brunei	1958	13	...	10	...
North Borneo	1959	48	1	88	...
Sarawak	1958	27	4	...	1
FAR EAST					
Hong Kong	1958	897	398	1,062	70
Macau	1958	74	...	...	11
Mongolian People's Rep.	1956	354	...	...	34
Taiwan	1956	4,049	724	1,817	761
Japan	1958	97,300	31,814	52,319	56,518
Rep. of Korea	1958	6,405	1,035	3,374	...
Ryukyu Islands	1950	426	122	1,136	62
OCEANIA					
Australia	1956	11,035	4,146	...	7,350
New Zealand	1959	2,800	906	...	1,550
Netherlands New Guinea	1958	80	...	7	...

Source: Mainly data compiled by the World Health Organization from official publications and other reliable sources, and from information received by the Organization from national administrations.

Note: The number of physicians is believed to include doctors in public and private institutions, as well as private practitioners, provided they have some type of official legitimation. Similarly, dentists and pharmacists are believed to include only licensed practitioners.

(1) United Nations - Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Statistical Yearbook 1961. Table No. 177. Sales No.: 62-XVII-I. New York, 1961. pp. 607-611.

TABLE NO. 28

NUMBER OF INHABITANTS PER PHYSICIAN and HOSPITAL BED

(United Nations Report)

COUNTRY	Date	Inhabitants per Physician	Date	Inhabitants per Hospital Bed
SOUTH ASIA				
CEYLON	1953	5,300	1953	360
INDIA	1952	5,700	1950	3,060
PAKISTAN	1954	13,000	-	-
SOUTHEAST ASIA				
BURMA	1952	8,400	1952	90
INDONESIA	1954	71,000	1954	1,300
FED. of MALAYA	1954	8,000	1952	205(a)
PHILIPPINES	1951	12,000	1951	...(a)
SINGAPORE	1954	2,600	1952	205
THAILAND	1954	6,800	1954	1,580
VIET-NAM	1952	61,000	1952	2,500(b)
BRITISH BORNEO	1955	16,700	1952	440
CAMBODIA	1953	90,000	1952	2,800
LAOS	1953	29,000	1951	500(b)
FAR EAST				
CHINA: Mainland	1953	22,000(b)	-	-
HONG KONG	1955	3,300	1953	500
MACAU	1952	2,800	-	-
JAPAN	1954	1,000	1952	196
KOREA: South	1953	5,700	-	-
OCEANIA				
AUSTRALIA	1952	1,040	1952	90
NEW ZEALAND	1954	720	1953	76
NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA	1954	14,000	-	-

(a) Incomplete data.

(b) Estimate.

Source: United Nations - Bureau of Social Affairs. Report on the World Social Situation, E/CN.5/324/Rev. 1 ST/SOA/33. Sales No.: 1957.IV.3. New York, 1957. pp. 43-45.

COMMUNICATIONS

When the Constitution of UNESCO was written, it included, as one of the aims of the organization, the encouragement of the free flow of ideas and mutual understanding among nations "through all means of mass communication."

Since then the means of communication have been improved and expanded with such astounding speed that potentially all nations and all parts of a nation have been brought within hearing distance of one another. Whether what we say over these marvellous instruments is always worth hearing is another question, but the potential influence of ideas and events on the individual is apparent, as is also their role in his intellectual, moral and civic development. "The impact of the press, radio, film and television on the man in the street produces immediate reaction in its turn. The man in the street, particularly in countries where democracy is expressed through universal suffrage, is the citizen, the elector."(1) The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that the right to freedom of information is the key to all human freedoms.

The available statistics and information on the press, radio, T/V and cinema in Asia show that, with very few exceptions, Asia is not well supplied with these media of communication. In countries with dense populations, except in the case of Japan, this means that millions of people are unreached by the flow of information and ideas normally available to others. "The effects of modern mass media of communication are rapidly spreading in Asia, but millions of Asians are still isolated from any significant contact with the world as a whole through the press, radio and motion pictures."(2) The report of the Bangkok Conference noted that "almost all of the countries of Southeast Asia were insufficiently provided with information facilities."(3) The Conference cited as some of the reasons for this situation, the lack of adequate equipment, lack of resources,and restrictions on importation of equipment, due to shortage of foreign exchange.

The Press

The most important factor in news media is the daily newspaper. The degree to which it is used in a given country may be estimated in different ways; the actual number of daily newspapers; the average number of copies of daily newspapers per 100, or per 1,000 of the population; and the weight in kilograms of newsprint per capita.

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(1) From the inaugural address by Vittorino Veronese,Director-General of UNESCO at Bangkok, January 1960, published in Developing Mass Media in Asia. UNESCO,Paris, 1960. p. 5.

(2) Doak, Barnett A. in Turn East Toward Asia. Sixth National Conference Report, United States National Commission for UNESCO, San Francisco, November 6-9, 1957. p. 57.

(3) Developing Mass Media in Asia. (UNESCO). Op.cit., p. 13.

Assuming the population of Asia to be 969 million people, they are served by 1,000 daily newspapers, which have a combined circulation of 45,300,000 copies.(1) Eighty percent of these copies (or 36 million) are in Japan, which has 97 dailies.(2) This means that the remaining 900 dailies have an average circulation of only 10,000 copies. Taking the overall figures, there are less than five copies per 100 inhabitants.

Considering Japan separately, there are 40 copies per 100 people, which is slightly higher than the figure for Australia (38).(3) UNESCO considers that any country which has fewer than ten copies per 100 of the population is insufficiently served with newspaper facilities.

Expressed in terms of weight of newsprint, the annual rate per capita for the whole area is only 0.3 Kg., whereas for Japan it is 5.7 Kg. For North America the figure is 36. In other words, North America has 120 times as many newspapers as Asia does and six times as many as Japan. (For details of newspaper circulation, see TABLE No. 30 NEWSPAPERS - DAILY and NON-DAILY).

Literacy is an important factor in newspaper circulation, and thus, in most countries, few newspapers are read in the rural areas, the readership being concentrated in the cities. "Because literacy is so important to the use and understanding of mass media, it will influence the success or failure of any communication program. Indeed, literacy is frequently taken as one measure of the degree to which a nation may be classified as underdeveloped."(4)

In some areas there is the problem of language. "The printing of newspapers in various languages involving the use of ideographic and non-ideographic scripts, is often slow and costly if effective techniques are not employed."(5) A further obstacle to the expansion of newspaper publishing is the cost of newsprint and news agency services from abroad, and also the cost of modern equipment.

The circulation of magazines in Asia is also very limited, because of low income levels and the relatively high cost of periodicals. However, while considering the situation with regard to newspaper circulation in Asia, it must be remembered that it is not a static one. "A readership revolution is obviously due to occur in Asia within the next eight to ten years...it will challenge editors to recognize the needs of a vast mass of new literates, a mass which has probably not evolved sufficiently in school to think in terms of concepts and abstractions."(6)

Circulation of newspapers in the Philippines has been increasing ten percent a year. Newspapers in Madras, Kerala, and Calcutta have doubled their circulation in five years. Most of the increased circulation is in the vernacular press rather than in English.(7) A study carried out among 42 daily

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(1) Figures taken from the Bangkok report, p. 15, do not include China (mainland), North Korea or Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam.
(2) Ibid., p. 15.
(3) Developing Mass Media in Asia (UNESCO). Op.cit., p. 15.
(4) The Journal of Asian Studies. Vol. XXII, No. 1, November 1962. p. 68.
(5) UNESCO. Bangkok Report, January 1960. Op.cit., p. 16.
(6) Ravenholt, Albert. "Asia's Free Daily Newspapers", American Universities Field Staff Reports Service, New York. Vol. X, No. 7, pp. 3-4.
(7) Ibid., p. 4.

newspapers in India revealed that from 80 to 85 percent of the news printed was national and international, and that few newspapers had local reporters who could supply items of special interest to readers. In several Asian countries freedom of the press is curtailed. Only in Japan, Hong Kong, the Philippines and India are newspapers fully their own masters."(1)

National news agencies have been called "the nerve center of the information life of a country."(2) This being so, the decision taken at the Bangkok Conference to form a regional association which would link the national news agencies of Asia was significant. The Organization of Asian News Agencies (OANA) will promote airmailed exchange between Asian agencies of news round-ups, feature articles and photographs; facilitate travel of journalists from one country to another; and promote closer relationships with world agencies.

Radio Broadcasting

Radio broadcasting is a powerful medium of communication. It can be an instrument for the spread of knowledge and for the freeing of men's minds. It can also be "a political force of great magnitude. The dangers of misuse may be easily envisaged."(3) The Conference at Bangkok urged that it be used in the interests of society to promote "economic and social progress, as well as knowledge, friendship and understanding between the peoples of the world."(4)

Radio broadcasting is carried on in all the Asian countries, and in the majority of them by short wave. In most cases the stations are government-operated and the programs are broadcast in many languages. In six countries the government charges license fees for the use of radio receivers.

One way of measuring the degree to which radio broadcasting is used in a country is the number of sets per thousand or per hundred of the population. In other words, the effectiveness of radio broadcasting is not so much in the number of programs on the air as in the number of listeners. UNESCO considers that the minimum for a country should be five sets per hundred population. The Bangkok Conference believed that a desirable target is one set for every five persons, or one per family, and that there was reasonable expectation that this would be reached within a few years.(5) At the present time, the number of receivers per thousand population ranges from 2.4 in Burma to 157 in Japan. The next area after Japan in the number of receivers is Singapore with 86. (For UNESCO report of RADIO AND TELEVISION BROADCASTING RECEIVERS, see TABLE No. 29).

At Bangkok, plans were discussed for providing cheap radio sets, especially for rural areas, where listeners are considerably fewer than in the cities. However, "one of the greatest obstacles to the provision of cheap receivers lay in the high tariffs levied by some governments."(6) One solution of the problem is for manufacturers within a country to produce low cost sets,

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(1) Ravenholt, Albert. "Asia's Free Daily Newspapers", Op.cit., p. 6.
(2) UNESCO Chronicle, February 1962, Vol VIII, No. 2, p. 57.
(3) UNESCO, Bangkok Report. Op.cit., p. 28.
(4) Ibid., p. 28.
(5) Ibid., p. 27.
(6) Ibid., p. 28.

and, because of the lack of electricity in many rural areas, these should be battery-operated. The increased use of radio in rural areas is important as a means of bringing news, information, instruction and entertainment to scattered communities, which are largely illiterate and thus unable to be reached by other media of communication.

There are many technical problems in the further use of radio in Asia arising out of geographical conditions. Indonesia and the Philippines, with their thousands of islands, present one set of problems, while countries like Burma, Thailand and Viet-Nam, with vast plantations and forest ranges, present another. Korea is mountainous, and therefore radio transmission is difficult in that country. At the present time, it can be said that "although radio is called a means of mass communication, in most Southeast Asian countries there is as yet no established communication with the actual masses."(1)

"The radio is still a luxury in India, and our industrial workers listen to the radio either in the factory waiting room or common room or in a labour community centre, or in the neighbourhood restaurants. Film broadcast on the Ceylon or Goa radio are very popular, but there would hardly be any listening to a programme of education, information or of general knowledge. Songs in regional languages, dramas and stories do draw some audience. But since these radio programme schedules do not and cannot conform to the leisure hours of the industrial workers working in different shifts, they are of secondary importance. Besides, the radio programmes have to make much headway in catering to the tastes of their listeners in general and the industrial workers in particular."(2)

Television

It is no longer believed that television should be regarded as a luxury, but rather it is being increasingly considered as an essential in the field of mass communication. The use of television, moreover, need not wait until a country is highly developed. "Experience has shown that powerful social forces can sometimes compel the introduction of television before a country can be said to be economically ready for it."(3)

It is already in use in Japan, India, Republic of Korea, Philippines, Thailand, and the People's Republic of China. Among these, Japan is outstanding. "Over a third of the households in the country have TV sets; there are 2,000,000 in Tokyo alone, and some 5,000,000 in the rest of the country...nearly 80 percent of the total families in Japan are now in a position to receive telecasts from one of the 131 stations, commercial and government. The government network NHK...plans to increase the number of its TV stations from 70 to 200 within the next two years."(4)

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(1) UNESCO. Bangkok Report. p. 85.

(2) Prabhu, Pandhari Nath. "A Study on the Social Effects of Urbanization", The Social Implications of Industrialization and Urbanization. UNESCO, Calcutta: Research Centre on the Social Implications of Industrialization in Southern Asia. 1956. p. 97.

(3) UNESCO. Bangkok Report. p. 35.

(4) Luben, Barnerd. Asian Deputation Reports. No.1,Sept.1961, p. 1.

In Japan, the popularity of television is such that radio listening has declined. According to studies made, the total number of households listening to radio dropped from 81.3 percent in 1958 to 76.1 percent in 1959. However, the growing use of television in Japan has had no adverse effects on the use of the cinema.

The question of whether television broadcasting should be controlled by the state or private groups (or through both types) is an important one. In China(Mainland) it is controlled by the state; and in the other countries which use television (Philippines, Thailand, South Korea,Hong Kong) it is in private hands. In Australia and Japan there are both types, state-owned and private-owned. (See TABLE No. 31 -PROTESTANT BROADCASTING IN ASIA).

Cinema

In comparison with the press and radio as media of mass communication, the cinema is new in Asia. During World War II, the film was used effectively as a tool in training camps. In the post-war period, as many countries achieved self-government, a fresh impetus was given to creating a national consciousness, and to the education of the people in the idea of democracy through mass media. "Most of the countries realized the effectiveness of the film as a powerful mass medium, and wherever possible, the film industry has been actively encouraged."(1) In each country there is a constant and pressing need for improvement in both the quantity and quality of films. There is, generally speaking, a serious lack of film technicians, equipment and laboratory facilities, and of financial resources. The extensiveness of the use of film in a country can be judged by the number of cinema seats per thousand population. These range from four in Burma to forty in Taiwan; with 34 for Japan, 29 for Singapore, and 79 in Ceylon.

Protestant Use of Mass Media

While the main purpose of mass media of communication in the secular world is to educate, inform and entertain, among the Christian Churches the principal objective is to proclaim the Gospel. With this end in view, all media are being used: the printed page, radio, television, film strips, magnetic soundstrips,and flannelgraphs.

The Protestant Churches are channelling their activities in the field of mass communication in various ways. Following a regional conference in Bangkok in 1955, the Broadcasting and Audio-Visual Aids Committee was formed, and, with an office in the Audio-Visual Center in Tokyo, this Committee functions as the radio and audio-visual department of the East Asia Christian Conference.

Under the National Christian Councils in Burma, Indonesia,Japan,Korea, Malaya, India, Philippines and West Pakistan, audio-visual departments (under various names) have been established. Activities of these organizations include: radio programs, T/V programs, drama committees, audio-visual libraries

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(1) UNESCO. Bangkok Report. p. 97.

(for the use of local churches), mobile film units, publication of books, pamphlets, programs, catalogs, etc. (for details of the programs of these organizations, see the following tables:

TABLE No. 31 - PROTESTANT BROADCASTING IN ASIA
" No. 32 - PROTESTANT RECORDING STUDIOS IN ASIA
" No. 33 - AUDIO-VISUAL CENTERS IN ASIA

These national organizations are related to, and in some cases receive aid from, RAVEMCCO (Radio, Visual Education and Mass Communication Committee of the Division of Foreign Missions of the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U.S.A.) and the World Conference on Missionary Radio.

The quality of Christian programs in radio and films is improving all the time, and the quantity is increasing. In Korea, motion pictures attract large audiences, it not being uncommon for audiences of 1,500 or more to gather to view Christian films. Six mobile vans take films to all of South Korea, while in Hong Kong, close to 60,000 persons viewed Christian films in one year. Christian radio broadcasts are reaching a growing number of people in Thailand, Burma, Korea, Japan and the Philippines, their effectiveness being shown in the many letters received by the stations operating them.

Christian Literature

The production and distribution of Christian literature has been one of the deep concerns of the Christians in Asia. It began with the early missionaries, and, with the establishment of churches, Christian literature has become one of their major responsibilities.

There are Christian literature societies (under various names) in nearly all of the countries. In August 1958 the East Asia Christian Literature Conference held in Japan brought together representatives from fifteen countries.

The task of providing adequate Christian literature is very complex and far-reaching. Many kinds of literature are needed. Church literature includes literature for children, youth, home and family life, the lay leader; literature on the Christian faith, on the civic and social responsibilities, on the Christian Stewardship, devotional literature. Literature for non-Christians also covers a wide range of subjects.

The training of writers is commanding increasing attention also. "Experience indicates that for any successful literature program today, both full-time and trained personnel are needed if the Christian message is to be presented adequately in a highly organized and competitive field. Literature production should therefore be given high priority in the total Christian missionary endeavor."(1) The Hakone Conference recognized that distribution was the weakest link. Christian literature societies, therefore, are making plans for improved distribution and training institutes for booksellers.

(1) Huff, Howard F. (ed.) Hakone Communique. Second East Asia Christian Literature Conference. Tokyo, Japan: Japan Christian Literature Commission, 1959. p. 124.

TABLE No. 29

RADIO AND TELEVISION BROADCASTING RECEIVERS

(UNESCO Report)

Country	Number of radio receiving sets (thousands) 1959	Total number of receivers per 1,000 inhabitants	Number of receivers in use or licenses issued	
			Total (thousands) 1960	Per 1,000 inhabitants 1960
SOUTH ASIA				
CEYLON	279	29	...	...
INDIA	1,604*	4.0*	0.4	-
NEPAL	...	1.3	...	...
PAKISTAN	250	2.9	...	...
AFGHANISTAN	...	1.5	...	...
SOUTHEAST ASIA				
BURMA	50	2.4	...	...
INDONESIA	816	9.0	...	...
FED.of MALAYA	234	35	...	...
PHILIPPINES	550	22	38	1.4
SINGAPORE	136	86	...	...
THAILAND	...	4.4	60	3
REPUBLIC OF VIET-NAM	...	6.8	...	...
BRITISH BORNEO				
Brunei	6.0	75	...	...
N.Borneo	13	31	...	...
Sarawak	26	38	...	...
CAMBODIA	19	3.9		
LAOS	...	9.1	...	...
FAR EAST				
CHINA(Mainland)	7,000	10	20	0.03
HONG KONG	151	52	7.0	2
MACAU	4.7	22	...	...
TAIWAN	445	43	0.1	0.01
JAPAN(a)	...	157	5,992	64
REPUBLIC OF KOREA	380	16	8.0	0.3
OCEANIA				
AUSTRALIA(b)	2,247	223	1,121	109
NEW ZEALAND	570	245	...	...
NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA	7.5*	11*	...	...

(a) April 1 to March 31 of following year.

(b) Including Papua.

... Data not available.

\- Magnitude nil or negligible.

* Provisional or estimated data.

(1) UNESCO - Basic Facts and Figures 1961. International statistics relating to education, culture and mass communication Paris, 1962. pp. 160-162, 166-167.

TABLE No. 30

NEWSPAPERS - DAILY and NON-DAILY(1)

Country	Year	Number of Daily Newspapers	Estimated Circulation Total (thousands)	Estimated Circulation Per 1,000 inhabitants	Number of Non-Daily Newspapers	Estimated Circulation Total (thousands)	Estimated Circulation Per 1,000 inhabitants
SOUTH ASIA							
CEYLON	1960	8	356	37			
	1956				5	367	41
INDIA	1959	420	4,281(a)	11(a)	36	428(b)	1
NEPAL	1960	13	7	0.8			
	1959				8	...	...
PAKISTAN	1955	80	725	9	304	750	9
AFGHANISTAN	1959	12	62	5	7	...	...
SOUTHEAST ASIA							
BURMA	1958	21	160	8	...	...	...
INDONESIA	1958	95	962	11	...	...	...
FED. OF MALAYA	1959	15	226	34	13	236	35
PHILIPPINES	1956	19	413	19	100	1,334	60
SINGAPORE	1959	12	345	218			
	1957				13	409	280
THAILAND	1958	14	170	8	11	...	...
VIET-NAM, Republic of	1958	26	353	28			
	1956				13	94	8
BRITISH BORNEO:							
Brunei	1955				3	17	304
N.Borneo	1957	4	6.2	16	...	...	...
Sarawak	1959	11	26.3	38			
	1956				2	1.2	2
CAMBODIA	1959	8	22	5	17	61.5	13
LAOS	1957	1	...	...	...	...	...

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 30 (Cont'd)

NEWSPAPERS - DAILY and NON-DAILY

Country	Year	Number of Daily Newspapers	Estimated Circulation Total (thousands)	Estimated Circulation Per 1,000 inhabitants	Number of Non-Daily Newspapers	Estimated Circulation Total (thousands)	Estimated Circulation Per 1,000 inhabitants
FAR EAST							
CHINA (Mainland)	1955	392	12,000	20	...	...	...
HONG KONG	1959	30	600	210	5	...	...
MACAU	1958	5	18	86	3	2.3	11
MONGOLIAN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC	1956/57	3	106	103	35	118	118
TAIWAN	1959	28	500	49			
	1955				15	47	5
JAPAN	1958	146(c)	36,656	398			
	1956				818	...	...
REPUBLIC OF KOREA	1958	42	1,300	57			
	1959				99	...	...
RYUKYU ISLANDS	1956	15	281	348	6	16.5	20
OCEANIA							
AUSTRALIA	1958	54	3,745	380			
	1957				393	3,489(d)	362
NEW ZEALAND	1959	42	903	387	59	187	80
NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA	1958	1	1.5	2			
	1959				3	8	11

... - Data not available.

(a) Circulation figures for 318 dailies only.

(b) Circulation figures for 29 newspapers only.

(c) Including 49 newspapers of which both morning and evening editions have been counted separately.

(c) Data include circulation figures for 4 Sunday newspapers (1,691,427 copies) and for 2 Saturday evening newspapers (39,021 copies) produced by companies publishing dailies 6 times a week.

(1) UNESCO - Basic Facts and Figures 1961. International statistics relating to education, culture and mass communication. Paris: 1962. pp. 120-122,126-127.

TABLE No. 31

PROTESTANT BROADCASTING IN ASIA(1)

Location	Call Letters	Hours per Day	Power	Languages	Relation of(2) Receivers to Population	Auspices
KOREA						
Seoul	HLKY (medium wave)	10½	10,000 watts	Korean	830,000 / 22,303,000 (3 million listeners)	Korea Christian Council*
Iri-Chunji	HLCM (medium wave)	8	1,000 watts	Korean	(1 million listeners)	Korea Christian Council-Iri Churches
Kwangju	HLCL (medium wave)	7½	250 watts	Korean	(½ million listeners)	Korea Christian Council-Kwangju Churches
Pusan	HLKP (medium wave)	7	250 watts	Korean	(1½ million listeners)	Korea Christian Council-Pusan Churches
Taegu	HLKT (medium wave)	7	250 watts	Korean	(1 million listeners)	Korea Christian Council-Taegu Churches
Inchon	HLKX (short wave)	N/A	50,000 watts	Korean Chinese English Russian	1,230,000 / 30,403,000	Evangelical Alliance Mission TEAM
OKINAWA						
Naha	KSDX KSAB	21 (on 2 stations)	N/A	N/A	N/A	Far East Broadcasting Company
Okuma (beaming to mainland China)	KSBU (medium wave)	N/A	100,000 watts	Mandarin Amoy Cantonese	Not reported	Far East Broadcasting Company

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 31 (Cont'd)

PROTESTANT BROADCASTING IN ASIA(1)

Location	Call Letters	Hours per Day	Power	Languages	Relation of(2) Receivers to Population	Auspices
PHILIPPINES						
Dumaguete	DYCR (medium wave)	14	10,000 watts	English Visayan Amoy	1,000,000 / 27,500,000	Philippine Federation of Christian Churches
	(SEA RADIO) (Shortwave)	To go on the air in 1963	50,000 watts	Mandarin Amoy Thai,Malay Burmese	2,651,000 / 149,308,000	South East Asia Radio Directorate and RAVEMCCO
Manila	(medium wave)	To go on the air Sept.1963	10,000 watts	Tagalog English	-	Philippine Federation of Christian Churches
	DZAS (shortwave) & 10 smaller sw and mw stations	52 program hours	50,000 watts	English & 36 languages of the orient	2,651,000 / 149,308,000	Far East Broadcasting Co.
TAIWAN						
Taipei	"Voice of Salvation"	18	N/A	Mandarin Taiwanese	763,062 / 10,853,627	OVERSEAS RADIO

(1) Prepared by RAVEMCCO (Radio,Visual Education and Mass Communications Committee) of the Division of World Mission of the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U S.A. January 1963.

(2) Proportion of receivers to population.

* Also broadcasting on television.

N/A- Information not available.

TABLE No. 32

PROTESTANT RECORDING STUDIOS IN ASIA(1)

Country	Location	Hours Per Day	Outlets	Languages	Receivers / Population	Auspices
BURMA	Mandalay	½ hour	DZAS	Burmese Karen	100,000 / 21,500,000	Burma Christian Council
CEYLON	-	N/A	N/A	English Tamil	349,908 / 10,000,000	Back to the Bible
HONG KONG	Kowloon	Producing and filing for SEA Radio	-	Mandarin Amoy Cantonese	130,000 / 3,128,000	Hong Kong Christian Council
	-	-	-	-	-	Peniel Church
	-	-	-	-	-	Alliance Church Union
INDIA	Jabalpur	1 hour	RADIO VOICE OF THE GOSPEL ETHIOPIA	Hindi English	2,000,000 / 388,000,000	CARAVS (India Christian Council)
	New Delhi	N/A	DZAS	N/A	"	Far East Broadcasting Co.
	Trimulgherry	N/A	N/A	N/A	"	The India Mission
	Andhra Pradesh	½ hour	RUOG	Telugu	"	Andhra Christian Council
	Madras	N/A	RUOG and others	Tamil Telugu Hindi	-	The Lutheran Hour
INDONESIA	Djakarta (Studio planned. Now using govt. studio)	1 hour on 4 days	Use local govt. stations. Will use SEA	Indonesian (Malay)	1,250,000 / 92,500,000	Indonesia Christian Council

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 32 (Cont'd)

PROTESTANT RECORDING STUDIOS IN ASIA(1)

Country	Location	Hours Per Day	Outlets	Languages	Receivers / Population	Auspices
JAPAN	Tokyo	-	NHK(govt. network)	Japanese	11,247,745 / 93,840,000	Japan Christian Council (AVACO)
	Tokyo	-	"	"	-	Pacific Broadcasting Association
	Tokyo	-	"	"	-	Church of the Nazarene
	Tokyo	-	"	"	-	Assemblies of God
	Chiyodaku	-	"	"	-	Lutheran Hour
	Fukuoka	-	"	"	-	New Life Time
MALAYA	Singapore	Being planned	-	Malay Chinese & Indian languages	121,000 / 1,600,000	Far East Broadcasting Co.
PHILIPPINES	Manila	1 hour on 5 days	Use local commercial stations	Tagalog English	1,000,000 / 27,500,000	Philippine Federation of Churches
TAIWAN	Taichung	-	-	-	763,062 / 10,853,627	Evangelical Alliance Mission (TEAM)
	Taipei	-	-	-	-	Overseas Radio Fellowship
THAILAND	Bangkok	½ hour and specials	Local govt. stations SEA Radio	Thai	800,000 / 24,000,000	Church of Christ in Thailand

* Also broadcasting on television.

N/A - Information not available.

(1) Prepared by RAVEMCCO (Radio, Visual Education and Mass Communications Committee) of the Division of World Mission of the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U.S.A. January 1963.

(2) Proportion of receivers to population.

TABLE No. 33

AUDIO-VISUAL CENTERS IN ASIA(1)

Country	Center	Personnel	Service Offered	Sponsor
BURMA	Christian Audio-Visual Center (Mandalay)	6 nationals 2 missionaries	Radio programming Film library and mobile van Workshops Indigenous filmstrips	Burma Christian Council
HONG KONG	AVEC (Audio-Visual Evangelism Committee)(Kowloon)	1 national 1 missionary (full-time) 3 nationals (part-time)	Film library Radio programming	Hong Kong Christian Council
INDIA	CARAVS (Christian Association for Radio and Audio-Visual Service) (Jabalpur)	8 nationals (full-time) 2 missionaries (full-time)	Film library Workshops Indigenous filmstrips Indigenous flannelgraph A-V magazine to serve Asia	India National Christian Council
INDONESIA	LAVA - DGI (Djakarta)	2 nationals (part-time)	Radio programming Film library and mobile van	Indonesian Christian Council
JAPAN	AVACO (Audio-Visual activities Commission) (Tokyo)	39 nationals 1 missionary	Television and radio Film library; workshops; Indigenous filmstrips Indigenous films Indigenous picture-story cards; Service publications Equipment production	Japan Christian Council
KOREA	KAVCO (Korean Audio-Visual Committee) (Seoul)	8 nationals 1 missionary	Film library and 6 mobile vans; Workshops; Indigenous filmstrips; Indigenous picture-story cards; Television	Korean Christian Council

(Continued) -

TABLE No. 33 (Cont'd)

AUDIO-VISUAL CENTERS IN ASIA(1)

Country	Center	Personnel	Service Offered	Sponsor
MALAYA	Audio-Visual Aids Department (Kuala Lumpur)	2 nationals (full-time) 2 nationals (part-time)	Film library and mobile van	Malayan Christian Council
EAST PAKISTAN	Audio-Visual Aids Committee	No staff	Film library Workshops	East Pakistan Christian Council
WEST PAKISTAN	Audio-Visual Department	4 nationals (full-time) 1 missionary (part-time)	Film library Workshops	West Pakistan Christian Council
PHILIPPINES	Radio Audio-Visual Commission	6 nationals (full-time) 2 nationals (part-time)	Radio programming Film library; Workshops Indigenous filmstrips; Indigenous picture-story cards	Philippine Federation of Christian Churches
TAIWAN	TACAVA (Taiwan Christian Audio-Visual Assoc. (Taipei)	2 nationals (full-time)	Film library Workshops	Independent (Represents 15 different denominations & mission organizations)
THAILAND	Audio-Visual Office (Bangkok)	4 nationals (full-time)	Radio programming Film library; Workshops	Church of Christ in Thailand.

BAVACO (Broadcasting and Visual Aids Committee), serving all of Asia for the purchase of equipment, giving advice and similar services, is organized under the East Asia Christian Conference, with an office in the Audio-Visual Activities Commission in Japan.

(1) Prepared by RAVEMCCO (Radio, Visual Education and Mass Communications Committee) of the Division of World Mission of the National Council of Churches of Christ in the U S.A. January 1963.

THE RELIGIONS OF ASIA

"All mankind is now in search of new foundations for its spiritual life," wrote Professor Toynbee.(1) Ancient religions are an integral part of the traditions and culture of the Asian people, but, along with Christianity, must now be viewed in relation to the revolutionary social changes that are taking place.

Hinduism, Islam, Buddhism and Confucianism are the principal religions. Hinduism is strongest in India, where it is the religion of from eighty to eighty-five percent of the population. Islam is the religion of the majority of the people of Pakistan, Malaya and Indonesia. Buddhism is strong in Ceylon, Burma, Thailand, Japan and Taiwan. Shintoism also is the religion of many Japanese. Sometimes the total of Shintoists and Buddhists combined, in Japan, is given as a higher figure than the entire population of the country. This is due to the fact that many Japanese profess both religions, and are included in the statistics of each. The majority of those classified as Confucian are Chinese, although an individual Chinese might call himself a Buddhist and observe Confucian rites as well. The number of Chinese who continue to observe Confucian ceremony under Communism is unknown, although it can be surmised that "filial piety", one of the two arch-stones of the Confucian ethic, has been eroded through its contact with Marxism.

Although Christianity spread to South India in the early apostolic times, it did not make any real impact until it was taken to Asia in the eighteenth century. Thus, while the non-Christian religions were established many centuries ago, Christianity, in both its Roman Catholic and Protestant forms, is of recent missionary origin. Protestant churches are found in all of the Asian countries, but they are stronger in the Philippines, India, Indonesia, Korea, Japan, China and Burma. According to reliable estimates, a little over three percent of the total population in Asia are Christian(two percent Roman Catholic, one percent Protestant).

All statistics regarding religious affiliation in a given country must be considered with caution, since they are only at best an approximation and subject to errors of many different kinds. For statistical purposes there is also the basic question as to what is a Christian. Is he a member of a church or one who considers himself to be a Christian, even though he is not a member of a Christian Church? A case can be made for a much higher percentage of Christians in Japan. William F.Woodward, Director of Research of Tokyo Institute for the Study of Religions, states that the figure of 700,000 Christians in Japan refers only to church members (Catholic,Protestant and Orthodox). He says that "according to a recent report issued by Japan's Institute of Statistical Mathematics, some three percent of the Japanese people, or approximately three million, regard themselves as Christians."(2)

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(1) Quoted by Raymond Hammer, Japan's Religious Ferment. Oxford University Press, 1962. p. 135

(2) Woodward, William P. in "Japan: Three Obstacles to the Gospel" in the Christian Century, March 7, 1962, p. 287.

The fact remains that "with the single exception of the Philippines, the Christian churches (Roman Catholic and non-Roman churches) in East Asia are small minorities, set amidst vast non-Christian communities."(1)

Religion(2)	ASIA	AUSTRALASIA(a)
Total Christian	49,806,000	11,493,000
Roman Catholic	37,752,000	2,972,000
Eastern Orthodox	2,570,000	75,000
Protestant	9,484,000	8,446,000
Jewish(b)	2,015,650	68,500
Muslim	331,520,000	106,000
Zoroastrian	140,000	...
Shinto	51,000,000	...
Taoist	50,000,000	8,000
Confucian	300,000,000	52,000
Buddhist	153,000,000	...
Hindu	334,708,000	113,500
Primitive	45,000,000	100,000
Others and none	348,904,100	3,472,000
Grand total-	1,666,093,750	15,413,000

Source: Britannica Book of the Year,1962.
(a) Includes Australia, New Zealand and Oceania.
(b) Includes total Jewish population,whether or not related to the synagogue.
Note: Statistics of the religions are only very rough approximations. Aside from Christianity, few religions, if any, attempt to keep statistical records; and even Protestants and Catholics employ different methods of counting members. All persons of whatever age who have received baptism in the Catholic Church are counted as members, while in most Protestant Churches only those who "join" the church are numbered. The compiling of statistics is further complicated by the fact that in China one may be at the same time a Confucian, a Taoist and a Buddhist. In Japan, one may be both a Buddhist and a Shintoist.

I. THE TRADITIONAL ROLE OF RELIGION

No case needs to be made for the place of religion in the life of Asia, either in the past or in the present. It is woven into the texture of life. To take one country as an example, "It is impossible to speak of the life of the Burmese without speaking of their religion. Traditionally, the monastery has

(1) Manikam, Rajah B. Christianity and the Asian Revolution. Op.cit., p. 269.
(2) Information Please Almanac,Atlas and Yearbook 1963. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1963. p. 330

been the focus of village life. The duty-day services at the pagoda, which villagers with their families attended every eight days in festive array and with festive moods, punctuated the Burmese month, providing highly social occasions. The great festivals were all religious...Religion affected the standard of living...Health and well-being which were aspects of personal potency were also bound up with religion."(1)

This is the traditional role of a culture religion. Along with historical and social forces, religion was one of the important factors which have influenced behavior-patterns and social customs. However, the present time is one of revolutionary change when the winds of modernization are blowing through the ancient forms of social and cultural life. Religion cannot be considered as a phenomenon by itself, isolated from the social and political fabric of society, or apart from cultural and traditional values. This is particularly true in Asia with its complex interplay of social and cultural forces, and the strength of traditional attitudes and behavior patterns. Changes are taking place, not only in social and political life, but in religious life, also, in religious attitudes, beliefs and allegiances. Religions themselves are undergoing radical change and modification.

II. THE RESURGENCE OF RELIGION

"This is an age of religious revival. The ancient peoples of Asia are passing through revolutionary social changes; they have made rapid advances as independent nations. They turn to their ancestral religions with a new hope. They realize that a good deal of their national culture is closely related to their religious heritage and that a cultural reintegration necessarily involves a religious reconstruction. Thus in recent times, the ancient religions of Hinduism, Buddhism, and Islam have become very real forces in the life and thoughts of Asian peoples."(2)

The causes for the revival or resurgence of traditional religions are stated by Bishop S. Kulandran as follows:

1) The encounter with Christianity

2) The influence and results of the efforts of certain persons

3) The achievement of, or desire for, political freedom

4) The results of the revival of national culture and language.(3)

As the Asian peoples emerge from traditional forms of society, a deeper dimension can be discerned in the agonizing struggle. Professor Kitigawa calls this "the search for self-identity."(4)

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(1) Mead, Margaret. Cultural Patterns and Technical Change. New York: The North American Library, 1961. pp. 26-27.

(2) Manikam, Rajah H. Christianity and the Asian Revolution. Distributed in the United States by Friendship Press. First published in Madras, India, 1954. p. 113.

(3) Kulandran, S. Resurgent Religions. London: Lutterworth Press. 1957. p. 5.

(4) Kitigawa, Joseph M. Article, "Search for Self Identity" in Ecumenical Review, Vol. XII, No. 3, April 1960. p. 332.

Self-identity

In the traditional Asian societies the individual had a sense of self-identity, because of the balance among the religious, political, social and economic values within the total scheme of things, for religions in Asia tend to be cultures and social systems as well. This self-identity became more difficult to maintain with the gradual stratification of societies and the changes which took place in the values just mentioned. "The fluidity and flexibility of Asian cultures were lost with the stratification of society, the stagnation of values, and the institutionalization of religious systems...Inevitably the traditional pattern of culture was disrupted, and peoples' images of who they were and what they were, became confused."(1)

Kitigawa believes that one of the greatest problems confronting the Asian nations today is "the difference in mentality and outlook among the new intelligentsia, the old intelligentsia and the masses."(2)

The role of the new intelligentsia was more important in the 19th century than it is today. The reason for this is that while in the 19th century the new intelligentsia, after considerable exposure to Western culture, returned to their countries, determined to reform and reshape them more or less in the image of Western nations, it became evident that they were no longer at home in their own culture, nor in that of the West. "In a sense they envy their illiterate neighbors, who can be comforted by old gods and superstitious rituals. They respect religion and mores, but they cannot believe in them. Most of them affirm their faith in science and democracy. Some of them cannot stand the strain of holding both Eastern and Western values, and they resort to submitting themselves to authority, such as joining the Communist party, the Christian Church, or embracing their ancestral faith. But an amazing number of people find it difficult to take such a step; they cling to the borderland, complaining about the meaninglessness of life."(3)

The old intelligentsia who are the guardians of ancient religions and cultures, suffer from the conflict between ideals and reality. With the gaining of political independence they hoped to return to the values and patterns of the past. Among the old intelligentsia are some who are more progressive in outlook and cling to the illusion that the traditional religions and cultures can successfully cope with technology, science, democracy and the modernization of life.

The masses in Asia mostly lived in villages and small communities and it was within the life of these that their identification was centered. For them there was no distinction between the sacred and the secular; life was one. However, with independence both the old and the new intelligentsia made common cause with the masses, and these suddenly became people with crying needs, demanding programs for better health, decent homes, improved living standards and more education. In the process they began to acquire self-identity and "this new sense of identity coupled with their new needs and wants was like an explosive charge put into their hands; it has exploded already in many parts of Asia,

(1) Kitigawa, Joseph M. Article, "Search for Self Identity". Op.cit.,p.336.
(2) Ibid., p. 340.
(3) Ibid., p. 340.

and it will continue to explode from now on."(1) That is why a discerning leader such as Eugene Nida, of the American Bible Society, states that "the future belongs to the masses," and this applies to all the underdeveloped countries which could well be called now the "developing countries".

One fact stands out - modernization is making its impact on the Asian countries. "The Western 'oppressors' are gone, but they cannot throw away the 'modernity' which is reshaping Asian societies and cultures with a secular science and a secular interpretation of state and law. 'Modernity', the legacy of the past, has irresistibly permeated all aspects of their lives."(2)

Four Types of Movements

Manikam distinguishes four types of resurgent religious movements in Asia: reform, revival, renaissance, and revolt.(3) These four movements have been in operation since the beginning of the nineteenth century, although recent social and political changes have, in some instances, accelerated the pace; all four may be in operation at the same time.

Reform is usually the result of the pressure of forces from without. The contemporary scene provides an example, in the case of Buddhism. "Theravada Buddhism cannot long continue to condemn Christianity for fermenting discord and strife if Buddhist nationalism oppresses and mistreats minorities and fails to produce harmony in the pluralistic societies of little Ceylon and Burma."(4)

Revival is a movement within a religion. Usually the apostles of revival are the old intelligentsia, to whom reference has been made. The claim is made that the ancient religion can be, and is, relevant to the contemporary secularist environment. Revivals are usually centered around some forceful personality as in the case of Ramakrishna and Vivekenanda in the Neo-Vedanta movements last century, and more recently of Radhakrishna, the eminent Hindu scholar.

A renaissance takes place as a result of the forces both without and within. In response to the need for reform and revival, the fundamentals of the traditional faith are restated in modern terms and give the religion a new vitality.

The leaders of a movement of revolt find the credal statements and the religious practices of the ancient religion entirely inadequate for the present day situation. "So the leaders...find themselves forced to renounce their loyalty and sever their connections. What is more, whether they find their spiritual home in another religion or not, they feel it their duty to carry on a crusade against what was once their ancestral faith."(5)

In the process of revival and renaissance, an important characteristic must be mentioned, and that is the tendency to become universalized or mission-

(1) Kitigawa, Op.cit., p. 342.
(2) Ibid., p. 346.
(3) Manikam, Op.cit., p. 118.
(4) Beaver, R.Pierce. "The Revival of the Asian Religions" in The Resurgent Religions of Asia and the Christian Mission. The Center for the Study of the Christian World Mission. University of Chicago,April 1959,p. 5.
(5) Manikam. Op.cit., pp. 119-120.

ary in outlook and activity. This has happened with the Bahai movement, the Ramakrishna mission and also with Theravada Buddhism and Mahayana Buddhism.

D.T.Niles[1] would put Bahai and the Ramakrishna mission in the same category as Moral Re-Armament (an outgrowth of Christianity). "All these are devoted to peace, to a right world order and to universal brotherhood."[2]

"The Ramakrishna Mission...has thirty-eight missions outside of India, of which eleven...are in the United States."[3]

"Therevada Buddhism has at least four organs of world mission...It has had considerable influence in propagating Buddhism in the West...through its literature. Ceylon's more aggressive missionary agency is the small Buddhist mission in Germany."[4] "...The Buddhist Mission in America, now called the Buddhist Church, and similar institutions in Europe, founded by Westerners, attempt to combine elements of Theravada and Mahayana, and they seek the conversion of Western peoples."[5]

Nationalism and Religion

While reference is made elsewhere in this study to nationalism, mention must be made here of its relation to the resurgence of religion in Asia. Nehru's book, Discovery of India, written while he was a political prisoner of the British, is "saturated with pride in the ancient culture, religious teachings, science, language."[6]

It is true that "the nationalism of today approaches fanatic religion in the heat of its zeal and the strength of its emotionalism...Southeast Asia's politicians are not averse to reviving old religions to unite their countries."[7] Religion and nationalism were intertwined in the thinking and ideology of Gandhi and Vivekenanda in India. The same has been true of political leaders and Islam in Pakistan. India and Pakistan, and especially the former, are two Asian countries where nationalism and religion are most closely related. "In spite of the nationalists' commitment to the ideal of the secular state, there is a revived consciousness of loyalty to Hinduism as a philosophy of life, as the basis of national culture. Hindu resurgence in the present period is consequently finding expression in a powerful plea for a nation-wide cultural renaissance."[8]

Similarly, in Indonesia "the struggle for national independence awakened Muslim leaders to the need of revitilizing their faith."[9] "Burma manifests much more abundantly than any other Theravada country the resurgence of Buddhism

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(1) Quoted by R.Pierce Beaver. Op.cit., p. 4.
(2) Ibid., p. 4.
(3) Ibid., p. 4.
(4) Ibid., p. 4.
(5) Ibid., p. 4.
(6) Kretser, Bryan de, in "Religion and Nationalism - Ceylon, A Case Study" in The Resurgent Religions of Asia and the Christian Mission. University of Chicago, 1959. Section II, p. 2.
(7) Thomas, Winburn T. and Manikam, Rajah B. The Churches in Southeast Asia. New York: Friendship Press, 1956. pp. 72-73.
(8) Manikam, Op.cit., p. 135.
(9) Ibid., p. 163.

in national life and as a world religion."(1)

Among the causes of the resurgence of ancient religions in Asia already mentioned, the encounter with Christianity must not be overlooked. "Whenever Christianity is proclaimed in the East, the resurgence of ancient religions takes place; Hinduism, Buddhism or Islam is aroused to new life."(2) A resurgent Buddhism, with a missionary passion which makes it a powerful dynamic factor in revolutionary Asia, seeks to do what it believes Christianity has failed to do. "The World Peace Pagoda, built in Rangoon by the Buddhist Sixth Council, attests to the global aspirations of Buddhism, which is claiming that it has the solution to world problems which Christianity has failed to solve."(3)

"For all the three religions (Hinduism,Buddhism, and Islam) the most incisive experience in the last one hundred and fifty years has been the contact with the dynamic West.(4) ...The invasion of the dynamic West in the form of trade, of political and economic overlordship has drawn them (the religions) out of their introversion and caused them to review their basis and position anew."(5)

Thus, nationalism and religious resurgence are closely related, nationalism promoting religion, religion bolstering nationalism. "Today, national leaders in Southern Asia, as well as in China, are trying to build up new, modern civilizations by using Marxist ideology or traditional religions, to go beyond the value concepts of the modern West. Therefore, in Asia today, nationalism and the movement for modernization of society are closely intertwined."(6)

There is a danger that the Christian Churches, as they emerge from foreign control or domination, will be influenced by nationalism to such a degree that they will lose their prophetic voice just when it needs to be heard. "The Christian interpretation of nationalism means the Christian understanding of the modern history of Asia."(7)

III. NEW RELIGIONS

In some Asian countries the religious situation has become more complicated with the rise of new religions alongside the traditional ones. The causes for the rise of the new religions in Japan include the following:

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(1) Beaver, R.Pierce. Op.cit., p. 8.
(2) Manikam, Op.cit., p. 169.
(3) Guillermo, Artemio R. in "South East Asia: Forces of Disruption", The Christian Century. July 4, 1962. p. 835.
(4) Kraemer, Hendrik. "Non-Christian Religions" in The Christian Broadcaster, Vol. X, No. 1, January-March 1962, p. 5.
(5) Kraemer, Hendrik. "Buddhism, Hinduism and Islam" in The Christian Broadcaster, Op.cit., p. 10.
(6) Shiozuki, Kentaro. "Our Calling to Service in Asia Today" in Student World, Vol. LV, Third Quarter, 1962, No. 3. Geneva: World Student Christian Federation. pp. 263-264.
(7) Thomas, M.M. "Some Notes on a Christian Interpretation of Nationalism in Asia" in Witnesses Together - Report of East Asia Christian Conference, 1959, Rangoon,Burma. p. 46.

1) The granting of religious liberty after the beginning of the Allied occupation.

2) The spiritual vacuum which existed after World War II, and the thirst of the common people for religion. However, not all the new religions are of post-war origin.

3) The neglect of the common people by the custodians of the ancient faiths.

4) The challenge of the old religions in a new form.

Some of the new sects are schisms from Buddhism or Shintoism and have gathered around strong personalities. Most of the new religions are syncretistic, drawing their inspiration not only from Buddhism and Shintoism, but also from Confucianism and Christianity.

"Estimates of their total membership vary from 9,000,000 to 20,000,000 ...The Yearbook of Religions for 1955, published by the Ministry of Education in Japan, reported 371 incorporated religious denominations, including 141 Shinto sects, 166 Buddhist, 36 Christian and 28 miscellaneous."(1)

The Iglesia ni Cristo movement was founded in the Philippines by Felix Manalo in 1915; the adherents of this sect are called Manalistas. Manalo was born a Roman Catholic, and later became a Protestant minister, serving in several denominations before establishing his own movement in which he is the "Supreme Pastor", considering himself also as the fifth angel mentioned in Revelations. The movement, while taking some elements from Christianity, is too far removed from it to be considered a heresy. Its leader claims to have a following of two million people in the Philippines, but this is probably an exaggerated estimate.

In Korea, the Olive Tree Church; in China and Taiwan, The Little Flock, and the True Jesus Church; and in China, Jesus Family, are also among the new religions claiming many adherents, although in China their strength has diminished in the last ten years.

The appeal of the new religions of Asia is probably as great as, if not greater, than that of the resurgent religions. "Ancient religions may not be growing in power", observes Manikam, "but as new religions they are challenging Christian evangelism."(2) He analyses these new religions to try to discover why they have such popular appeal. In the case of Konko Kyo, it is the clever manipulation of superstitious fears, a dreaded God being turned into a God of love and mercy by the founder of the sect, which now has nearly 600,000 adherents.(3)

The Mukyokai, or non-church movement, with between 50,000 and 100,000 adherents(4), was founded by Uchimura as a form of Japanese Christianity.

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(1) Beaver, R.Pierce. Op.cit., p. 6.
(2) Manikam, Rajah H. Op.cit., p. 183.
(3) Ibid., p. 176.
(4) Hammer. Op.cit., p. 171.

"Uchimura was anxious to retain the purity of Christianity, untinctured by Westernism."(1) In other cases in Japan, the appeal is through faith-healing, the most important sect being the Tenri Kyo with a million and a half members. "Personal faith and dependence have been emphasized in many of the new religions and 'faith-healing' is a common feature of their operation."(2) In other sects, elaborate use is made of rythmic dancing and periodic festivals. Manikam observes wistfully that "the annual festival may include a pilgrimage to the main shrine or the headquarters of the religion, an important part of a common religious life which Christians in Japan do not experience."(3)

Thus there are psychological and sociological reasons for the appeal of the new religions in Asia, and especially in Japan, but it is interesting and significant to note that from the Christian standpoint, there is practically no religion, either in the new group or the old, "that teaches individual and social responsibility for sin,"(4) nor is there any emphasis on the freedom and the dignity and worth of the individual. "A Japanese sociologist has said that the only religion which has done something, and is expected to do more, towards the awakening of the individual is Protestant Christianity."(5)

The most vital of the new religions in Japan is the group known as Soka Gakkai,a movement without hierarchical distinctions and strongly missionary. It is "...particularly vigorous in training its adherents as shock troops for the task of proselytizing. It is not surprising to find that they have increased their membership to more than four million since 1951, that they even fight in nation-wide elections, and have caused the trade unions to see their greatest danger in the new religions."(6)

No description of the religious situation in Asia today would be complete without some reference to Communism. It is true that Communism is an ideological and a political movement rather than a religion, but such is its philosophy and its program of action that it is able to command the loyalty and devotion in a manner comparable to that of a religion. Indeed, an Indian observer has called it "the fastest growing religion in his country."(7) For some it appears as "the new religion for the 'irreligious' and yet, though accepted in the name of rationality, the attachment is far more emotional than logical, of faith than of reason."(8)

China and North Korea are two countries ruled by Communist governments, and it must be acknowledged that their influence upon the thinking and the emotions of many in the rest of Asia is considerable. In Japan, India, Burma, Ceylon, Indonesia and Pakistan, the Communist Party is legally recognized, while in other countries there are Communist-led movements of varying strength.

Southeast Asia today is the ideological battlefield where this faith (Communism) contends for mastery against the systems of social and political

(1) Hammer. Op.cit., p. 111.
(2) Ibid., p. 136.
(3) Manikam. Op.cit., p. 181.
(4) Ibid., p. 184.
(5) Ibid., p. 184.
(6) Hammer. Op.cit., p. 138.
(7) Manikam, Op.cit., p. 80.
(8) Hammer. Op.cit., p. 148.

thought. And it would seem that Communism, riding on the negative forces of religions, nationalism and social unrest, which it has helped foment, has the advantage."(1)

The leaders of the Christian Churches in Asia are well aware of the nature of the Communist movement and the threat which it represents. In 1949, at Bangkok, the East Asia Conference, organized by the International Missionary Council and the World Council of Churches, declared that "because Communism lacks a conception of the independence of moral reality over against power, it denies the supremacy of the moral law over power politics, and hence in the long run defeats the very purpose of the social revolution. This ideological error in Communism, which turns a social revolution for justice into a new oppression, arises out of the self-righteousness of its militant atheism; and at this point the conflict between Christianity and Communism is fundamental."(2)

IV. CHRISTIANITY AND THE ASIAN REVOLUTION

This is the favorite theme of a number of writers today, and it is one which the Christian Church itself is pondering very seriously. "It is imperative that Christians search through the fog of pre-critical diagnoses and illusions until their message is rooted in the bedrock struggles of this part of the world. Where are the resources of Asian man at an end? Where, beneath the turbulent surface, is the basic struggle in which Asian man stands in fear and trembling?"(3)

In this study we have mentioned the resurgence of the ancient religions, the rise of new religions, the spread of Communism, the "westernness"of Christianity and the divisions of Protestantism as some of the factors which impede the spread of the Gospel and mar its full impact. If each of these were nullified or removed, would the Kingdom then be greatly advanced in Asia? If missionaries were either to leave Asia or to become citizens of the countries where they now serve, would that help the cause of Christianity? Again, will the Asian peoples achieve their highest goals and expectations through the advance of science and technology, with increased industrialization and urbanization? In other words, if Asians have more food to eat, better clothes to wear and more adequate houses to live in - all of which Christians strive to make possible in various ways - will the major problems of Asia be solved? Jacobson and Winn think that the belief that they will is a dangerous illusion. "The deepest struggle in Asia today is between the old social order and the new, between the ancient way of life and the modernization that is necessary as underdeveloped peoples adopt the advanced technology of our time...Asian man... is irrevocably caught between the ancient society and the new, and here he must live in fear and trembling, where new responses are demanded, new responsibilities compellingly required, with no evasion permitted in the shifting process of modernization."(4)

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(1) Quoted by Artemio R. Guillermo in The Christian Century, July 4, 1962. Op.cit., p. 836.
(2) Ibid., p. 836.
(3) Jacobson, Nolan Pliny and Winn, William E. in "The Live Centre in Asia". International Review of Missions. October 1962. Vol. 204, pp. 420-421.
(4) Ibid., pp. 425-426.

Christianity must free the spirit of man as well as his body, salvation must embrace the whole of man, body, soul and spirit, and not any one part alone. Moreover, it must not be merely a salvation from something, but also and primarily, for something.

An Asian leader put it this way, "I believe we must also raise the question of the concept of man...In Asia today, because of the growing recognition of the problem of social justice, all social evil is very easily attributed to bad social conditions. Moreover, in a time when traditional social systems are rapidly disintegrating, we Christians have a great responsibility to make clear the true meaning and nature of human community as symbolized in the early Church, a community liberated from family and village ties."(1)

The dimensions of the Asian Revolution were dramatically outlined by Professor Takenaka in his address before the East Asia Christian Conference at Kuala Lumpur in May, 1959. In the four centuries between 1517 and 1917 the west has experienced six different types of revolution.

1. A spiritual revolution - the Reformation of 1517.
2. An Industrial Revolution.
3. A political revolution bringing about independence from colonial rule - the American Revolution.
4. The French Revolution, involving the rights of the individual.
5. A revolution in race relations - the American Civil War.
6. The social revolution - the proletarian revolution of 1917.

"It is not over-exaggeration to say that these six revolutions, which actually occurred in the West in the past 400 years, are coming to Asia today all at the same time."(2)

V. CHRISTIANITY IN NEW DIMENSIONS

Reference has been made earlier in this chapter to the fact that the Christian community in Asia is a small minority, a little over three percent. However, the nature of Christianity is such that statistics tell only part of the story. The mass effects of dynamic Christian thought and action are felt on peoples and cultures, without a large number of persons being actually brought into the churches. Thus it is important to understand the place of a Christian minority in Asia today.

Professor Masao Takenaka, in an address on "A Style of Creative Minority"(3) has pointed out that a Christian minority faces the dangers of either isolation or adaptation. Isolation involves a cleavage between the Church and the World.

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(1) Cho, Kiyoko Takeda. "A Christian Understanding of the Nature and Scope of the Asian Revolution" in the Student World, World Student Christian Federation, Vol. LV. Third Quarter. p. 285.

(2) Witnesses Together. Report of East Asia Christian Conference,1959. Op.cit., p. 34.

(3) Church Labor Letter, Doshisha University, Kyoto,Japan, December 1959.

"In order to emphasize the purity of the Gospel, minority groups tend to place themselves against the world, or to escape from worldly struggle."(1) The temptation toward adaptation is at the other extreme, namely, "to follow after the general trend of the time without raising questions as to the meaning of the secular event in the light of Christian faith."(2) The Christian minority in Asia sometimes falls into either of these patterns. However, it is often found to be a "creative minority", sharing the burdens of a suffering world, rather than withdrawing from it. "The decisive difference between the Church and other social organizations exists here," says Dr. Takenaka, "namely, the Church fulfills her task by losing herself."(3) According to the World Council of Churches, "most Christians in Asia face the alternative of remaining a cloistered minority or of becoming more and more a creative minority, participating somehow in the task of nation-building on a pluralistic basis with those of other religions."(4)

Increasingly, Asian Christian leaders are coming to see the new dimensions of the Christian Gospel and its relation to the vast program of social, economic and political development. The Assembly of the East Asia Christian Conference at Kuala Lumpur in 1959 had this to say about the struggle which is taking place: "As Christians we are concerned with that struggle because it is, in important respects, an expression of man's struggle to give meaning to his life. In Jesus Christ is revealed the true nature of God, his will and purpose for man and society. The whole of social and economic life is included in the cosmic purpose of God."(5)

Factors to be Recognized

The following are some of the factors which must be recognized in any attempt to appraise the situation in which the Christian churches find themselves in Asia today:

(1) The western character of Christianity. Dr. D.T.Niles calls this the Westernity of the base", and by this he means that "Christianity is a Western religion, because the large majority of those in the world who bear the name of Christ live in Western lands(6)...(and) because Western culture and civilization have their roots in the Christian faith."(7)

(2) The image of the west as the author of the threat of atomic annihilation. "Mahayana and Theravada Buddhism, the New Religions of Japan and Neo-Vedanta are obsessed with the problems of peace and world order. Their most vigorous apologetic against Christianity stigmatizes our faith as being the

(1) Church Labor Letter. December 1959. Op.cit., p. 5.
(2) Ibid., p. 6.
(3) Ibid., p. 7.
(4) Service Programs and List of Projects 1963. Switzerland: World Council of Churches, Div. of Inter-Church Aid,Refugee and World Service. p. 162.
(5) "The Witness of the Churches Amidst Social Change in Asia" - report presented at the East Asia Christian Conference, May 1959. Witnesses Together. Op.cit., p. 65.
(6) Niles, D.T. Upon the Earth. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc. 1962. p. 195.
(7) Ibid., p. 199.

breeder of divisions, unbrotherliness, and exploitation."(1)

(3) The challenge inherent in the resurgence of the ancient religions of Asia.

(4) The fact that the Christian community has been largely drawn from the economically poorer classes of society. "Only in countries like Japan, the Philippines, Indonesia, and Ceylon are Christians from the middle classes and the churches urban; in other countries, the majority of Christians are to be found amongst the rural population...With these handicaps, it has not yet out-thought or out-lived the non-Christian religions in East Asia."(2)

(5) The divisions of Protestantism. Much has been written on this subject, and while some progress has been made, the basic problem still remains.

In the face of these and many other difficulties, some positive aspects must be noted. In recent years significant changes have taken place in the Christian movement in Asia and it is now regarded in a more favorable light with the development of nationhood in many countries which have achieved political independence. Christianity has come to stay and, generally speaking, it can be said that it has assumed a place of respect in national life. Recognition of the Christian ministries of health, education, and service to rural people has often been generously given by statesmen and government representatives. Some of the best educated people in positions of leadership today are Christians.

Secularism

One of the main consequences of the Asian revolution, and particularly of Asia's contact with the west in the whole process of modernization is secularism, or the secularization of society. An increasingly secularized world is a result of the technological-industrial revolution.

Kraemer calls secularism "the great event of the present time",(3) and gives Bonhoeffer's definition of it as "man himself - alone- is able to dispose of the world and of his own problems."(4) On the one hand, secularism can be viewed as an attempt to build life on a religionless basis. On the other hand, it can be considered as an attitude toward life which pervades the minds of all people, whether they be Christian or not, as a result of the technological revolution.

No attempt has been made to introduce secularism as such in the Asian world; it has just penetrated society as part of a more general process whereby western ideas, concepts, and ways of life have made their impact on society. The secularization process has even invaded the Christian Church. "The Church is also thoroughly secularized, just as much as the world, although in a different way."(5)

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(1) Beaver, R.Pierce. Op.cit., p. 2.
(2) Manikam. Op.cit., p. 270.
(3) Kraemer. Op.cit., p. 13.
(4) Ibid., p. 13.
(5) Ibid., p. 14

Secularism affects the growth and development of the ancient religions as well as that of Christianity. Kraemer believes that, rightly understood, secularism is not an unmitigated evil, as some might affirm, but has what he calls "positive aspects, especially from the Christian point of view."(1) Admittedly, it has its dangers, but it also has its possibilities. "Secularization and secularism...mean liberation and enslavement."(2)

Admitting that secularism has become necessary "since it provides the basis for common humanity and citizenship in our culturally heterogenous and class-conscious society," M.M.Thomas believes that "the danger lies in carrying secularism to the point of rejection of the religious nature and destiny of man."(3) Communism today is an example of secularism in an extreme form without a spiritual foundation.

Unity for Mission

A growing number of Asian church leaders are coming into a deeper understanding of Christ's words "that they all may be one" as not meaning unity for the sake of unity, but when related to the words that follow "...that the world may believe that Thou hast sent me" as implying unity for mission.

In Asia, this deep desire for unity in mission and for mission, which is the basis of the Ecumenical movement, has found expression in the establishment of united churches and the creation of the East Asia Christian Conference. These are part of the new dimension of the Church. There are now united churches as follows: in the Philippines, the United Church of Christ; the United Church of Christ in Japan; the United Church of Christ in Thailand; the Church of South India; the United Church of Northern India, and the Church of Christ in China. Negotiations for church union are going on also in West Pakistan (in relation to the church in North India), Ceylon and Indonesia. In no other part of the world is there such a coming together of younger churches as in Asia, and even there, only a beginning has been made. "The Church Union Movement," writes Dr. Niles, "is the first consequence of the attainment of selfhood in the churches of Asia."(4)

The most important development in recent times was the creation of the East Asia Christian Conference in May 1959, when representatives from forty-eight Protestant churches and councils, in fourteen countries, came together in Kuala Lumpur, Malaya, and voiced their desire to discuss common problems in the mission of the church through an established organization in which all would participate.

They declared, "There is much evidence of the work of the Holy Spirit in our churches. In areas of extreme difficulty and danger the church is growing. New ways of evangelism are being pioneered. Most of the churches in Asia are now sending out missionaries to other lands as well as receiving them, and helping one another with many kinds of service, as well as receiving manifold help

(1) Kraemer, Op.cit., p. 15.
(2) Ibid., p. 15.
(3) Thomas, M.M. and Devanandan, P.D.(eds). Problems of Indian Democracy. The Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society (Social Concerns Series No. 10) 1962. p. 89.
(4) Niles, D.T. Upon the Earth. Op. cit., pp. 144-5.

from churches in other parts of the world..."

"Before World War II, the churches of Southeast Asia had few contacts with one another. Except at world conferences, where a few churchmen from the area met one another, there was little or no fellowship among the leaders. The lives of the churches had been closely linked with their parent bodies in the West. A Filipino Methodist was better acquainted with the work of the Methodists in distant America than he was with that in nearby Singapore. Educated Karens in Burma knew more about American Baptists than about the Chinese Baptist Church in Bangkok."(1)

The Churches in Asia now face the task of making the Christian Church truly indigenous and yet truly ecumenical. D.T.Niles summarized this aptly in these words,"The missions of the West have become the Churches of Asia and Africa. The missionaries from the West have become colleagues in the younger Churches. 'Your' has become 'our'. But the task remains. There is the unfinished evangelistic task. There is the task of addressing Eastern cultures with a relevant and a pungent theology. There is the task of making the Church in Eastern lands congrous with its background. There is the task of giving regional expression to the ecumenical idea."(2)

In the short period during which the East Asia Christian Conference has been at work there has been developing, not a regional ecumenicalism, but a wider one with a missionary emphasis at its center. The fellowship includes the Protestant Churches of Australia and New Zealand which, though nurtured within a western culture, are feeling a new kinship with their sister churches in Asia. As an expression of their sense of unity in mission, the Asian churches have sent two hundred fraternal workers to other countries and the women of the churches have raised substantial funds for projects in Europe, Africa, the United States and the Middle East.(3)

In 1961 money collected by Christian women of Asia in the "Fellowship of the Least Coin", amounting to over seventy thousand dollars, was sent to a variety of projects in different parts of the world. These included: a family training institute in Mindolo, Africa; educational work, which had suffered under persecution in Colombia; Christian work among Vietnamese in France; work among Orthodox Churches in the Middle East; publication of Christian readers in Ceylon; the sending of fraternal workers to Nepal; a youth program in East Harlem, New York.

Study of Non-Christian Religions

It is the conviction of church leaders in Asia that they must seek to understand better the non-Christian religions of their countries. The former attitude prevalent among many Protestants of condemning these religions as unrelieved heathenism has given way to a much more tolerant viewpoint, and in some cases, a dialogue between Hindu and Christian, or Buddhist and Christian,

(1) Thomas, Winburn T. and Manikam, Rajah B. The Church in Southeast Asia. New York: Friendship Press, 1956. p. 90.
(2) Niles, D.T. Op.cit., p. 222.
(3) For full details, see Minutes of Enlarged Continuation Committee of the East Asia Christian Conference held at Bangalore,India, November 7-14, 1961.

has taken place to the advantage of all concerned.

A significant development in the attempt at understanding non-Christian religions has been the establishment of Centers of Study in different Asian countries. Some of the centers do not confine themselves to the study of religions, but also include social and economic investigations. The Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society in Bangalore is an example. Established in 1957, its work is primarily that of research in the field of contemporary social and religious life in India. It has a library, publishes literature and arranges for public lectures.

The Ceylon Study Centre was set up at Colombo by the National Christian Council of Ceylon several years ago. It engages in studies in depths of the Mission of the Church, and concerns itself with producing a better understanding of Buddhism on the part of Christians.

The Commission for the Study of Buddhism was established in Rangoon, Burma, in 1953, and outstanding Buddhist leaders are invited to give lectures.

The International Institute for the Study of Religions in Japan provides an atmosphere in which study and discussions can be conducted with give-and-take freedom.

It is important to understand why Asian Christian leaders believe it is essential to study non-Christian religions. It is not from the point of view of making a comparative study of religions, or arising out of a conviction that all religions are more or less the same, so that there is a continuity between Christianity and the religions of the world. Religions are expressions of the attempts of man to find God through human reason. Christianity is not a religion in the sense in which the word is generally used, but a faith in the revelation, or the self-disclosure of God in Christ. The heart of the Christian faith lies in the fact that God revealed himself in Jesus Christ, in time and place, and thus there is no need to keep on groping for him.

"Our faith is not a religion. A religion is a quest of men for God,the best that men can do in their search for God...but Christianity is not a quest for God. Christianity is good news from God. It is not men feeling blindly for the altar stairs that lead up to God and in his blindness stumbling on it. It is God, himself, coming down those altar stairs in his own dear Son that he may lift men out of their blindness and their helplessness into his light and power."(1)

The Christian apologist must understand Hinduism if he is to present the story of God's revelation of himself to a Hindu, but the apologist "is primarily concerned with people - Hindus, Muslims, Buddhists,Communists - rather than with the religious systems they represent. But one cannot really understand a person without a thorough knowledge of the religious system that has

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(1) Speer, Robert E. "The Achievements of Yesterday", address given at the Twelfth Quadrennial Convention of the Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions. Students and the Christian World Mission, Jesse R. Wilson,Ed. New York: Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions,Inc. 1936. p. 179.

molded his life."(1) This willingness to seek to understand the ancient religions as well as the new ones, while still preserving the uniqueness of the Christian Gospel, gives Christianity its greatest dimension. It offers to the Hindu, the Buddhist, the Communist, the Secularist and the atheist not another religion, but a faith in a living reality, a living person, Jesus Christ.

Renewal of the Church

The Churches in Asia stand amid challenges and opportunities without precedent in their history. New nations seek self-hood, political democracy, economic progress, peace and justice; governments strive to modernize their countries, as new ideologies compete with resurgent ancient religions for the allegiance of men. These and many others contain the challenge to the Christian Churches. Divided, they seek to come together; small in numbers, they exert wide influence; inheritors of a western pattern and a theology which developed in the west, they strive to interpret the eternal Gospel to the Asian people; thrust into an increasingly dynamic society, they must be vital and dynamic themselves.

Faced with difficulties and problems which, humanly speaking, are insuperable, the Churches in Asia, in dependence on Divine wisdom and power, must be renewed from within, in both worship and witness. Such a renewal will provide the greatest dimension for the life and work of the Churches and enable them to lose themselves in the service of the people of Asia.

The Christian Church in China

Any statement about the Christian Church in China must begin by recognizing the great difficulty of arriving at a reasonable and factual judgment concerning its status and position in the period following the revolution of 1949. This is due to two factors. The first is the serious lack of regular communication between the outside world and the Christians in China. The second factor arises from the paramount importance of the revolutionary political situation, which obviously has produced strong partisan feeling for, or equally strong criticism against, the present Communist regime. Emotion plays a large part, also, in the making of judgments about the Christian Church in China because of the overriding political and ideological factor. Both partisans and critics would perhaps agree with the statement of a former missionary in China, "The new regime that has come to China under the aegis of the Communist Party in the People's Republic of China is a very significant development, perhaps the most important change that has come to a great nation in two thousand years, and a fact of political reality with which the rest of the world must come to terms."(2)

The significant fact which stands out is that there is a Christian Church in China today after thirteen years of Communist rule. "For God's people in China we can give thanks,"(3) writes Dr.Hockin. At the same time it must be admitted that the price that has been paid for the continued existence of the

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(1) Manikam. Op.cit., p. 199.

(2) Hockin, Katherine. Servants of God in People's China. New York: Friendship Press. 1962. p. 10.

(3) Ibid., p. 124.

Christian Church in China is a high one. Grossly unfair charges were levelled against churches in the west, missionaries and national leaders alike several years ago. "As one reads the denunciatory articles that have filled Christian periodicals in China since 1951, it becomes apparent that many of the charges levelled against the Western Church, the mission boards, the missionaries, and many of their own Chinese colleagues have little, if any basis in fact."(1)

Frances Price Jones outlines the successive steps by which the Chinese Christians were largely won over to the support of the Communist regime, and by which the almost complete severance of relationships with Christian groups in the west was accomplished. These steps were:(2) the Christian manifesto of 1950; the three self-reform movements (self-support, self-government and self-propagation); and the Denunciation Movement. These "negative" steps were followed by the more positive one of systematic training of church leaders in Communist doctrine or theory.

The results of this process in the life and thought of the Christian Church in China are not entirely apparent, but some are discernible. The outstanding effect on the Church is its independence. "After a long period of dependence upon missions from abroad, it has been most important and fruitful for the life of the churches to become truly Chinese."(3) "The Chinese Church is one of the first of the younger churches to be subjected to Communist domination,"(4) and this unprecedented experience has meant that the Church not only has been obliged to "stand on its own two feet", but also at the same time, has been forced to re-examine its own faith, to attempt to harmonize it with that of the ruling regime.

Rev. Mr.Chao, Dean of Studies at Peking Union Theological Seminary, is reported to have said, "Biblical truth must not be abused to support any temporal political system...The last ten years have been years of the revolution and the guidance of the Holy Spirit - a time of purification and cleansing - an experience of a deep sense of renewal and fellowship in the Church and a time of witness in society. Churches are today truly worshipping communities. Church life is very lively and exhilarating."(5) In the process of rethinking their position, the Chinese Christians recognize the difference between the Communist view of history and the Christian view, but they also credit "the Communists with unselfish motives of service to the common people."(6)

Dr. Jones sums up the situation by saying that "something of a modus vivendi has been arrived at between Protestant Christianity and the Chinese Communist Party. The latter, so far, is willing to recognize the former, and guarantees a certain degree of freedom of religious belief, on condition that Chinese Christians show themselves loyal citizens and cooperate in the establishment of a new economic order."(7)

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(1) Jones, Francis Price. The Church in Communist China. A Protestant Appraisal. New York: Friendship Press, 1962. p. 166.
(2) For details on these steps, see The Church in Communist China. Op.cit.
(3) Federation News. World Student Christian Federation, November 1961. p. 33.
(4) Jones, Francis Price. Op.cit., p. 4.
(5) Russell, Maud. "What About Christians in China?" The YWCA - Far East Reports. 1960. p. 6.
(6) Jones, Francis Price. Op.cit., p. 93.
(7) Ibid., p. 162.

VI. CHURCH-RELATED PROGRAMS

Bible Distribution

Through the agencies of the American Bible Society in the various Asian countries, more than six million copies of the Scriptures were distributed in 1961. Impressive as this figure is, it must be considered in comparison with the total population of Asia.

The circulation of the Scriptures is related to the degree of literacy among the people of a given country. Widespread illiteracy is an obstacle to the work of the Bible Society, but it is only one of many. "Opposition and obstacles...arise in these countries from a vigorous and expanding secularism, revivals of ancient religions, crippling poverty, economic instability, millions yet unable to read, and a revolutionary mood largely directed against Western civilization."(1)

In spite of these obstacles remarkable advances have been made in recent years in the distribution of the Bible. In India and Ceylon over two million copies of the Scriptures were distributed in 1961. In Japan, forty-three colporteurs and thirty part-time workers were engaged in Bible distribution, and four Japanese colporteurs were sent to Okinawa to work in cooperation with the local churches. In the Philippines, the Bible is circulated in twenty-six dialects and there is a growing demand for Bibles and Testaments in the fast growing Christian community.

The following are the figures for distribution.(2)

Country	Bibles	Testaments	Portions	Totals
India and Ceylon	104,080	128,789	2,356,648	2,791,297
Thailand	1,386	4,178	366,724	594,245
Philippines	36,355	31,641	218,736	353,325
Hong Kong and Taiwan	45,481	37,959	800,889	896,467
Korea	33,207	156,349	816,776	1,039,647
Japan	102,412	476,702	1,568,283	2,505,305
Indonesia (American Bible Society share)	75,881	24,710	...	100,591
Total Circulation -	398,802	860,328	6,128,056	8,280,877

(1) American Bible Society. One Hundred and Forty-Sixth Annual Report 1962.

(2) Ibid.

National Christian Councils

In most of the Asian countries National Christian Councils have been formed and generally include in the membership the majority of the churches in the respective countries. The functions of these councils are various. The first of these is one of representation. Most of the councils are constituent members of the East Asia Christian Conference, and in their own countries, on occasion, they represent the total Protestant views on important matters of public concern. The second function is that of churches being able to undertake together activities and programs of interest and concern to all. The third function is that of providing fellowship across denominational lines in a common task.

Some of the councils have a wide range of activities. For example, the Council of Churches in Indonesia has commissions on Religious Education, Inter-Church Aid, Theological Education, Church Unity, Army Welfare, Youth, Scholarship, Family Planning, Health and Social Affairs, Mission Evangelism, Christian Literature, Church and Society, Home and Family Life, and Radio and Audio Visual Aids. In some countries there are, in addition, missionary fellowships and associations of various kinds. (See TABLE No. 35 -NATIONAL CHRISTIAN COUNCILS AND FELLOWSHIP GROUPS).

Student Christian Movements

Reference has been made in another chapter to the place of higher education in a revolutionary society in Asia. In the midst of the fast-growing number of university student bodies, there are small minorities of Christian students, and these are brought together by the Student Christian movements for fellowship, study and witness. These movements maintain a vital relationship and receive financial aid through the Ecumenical Assistance Program of the World Student Christian Federation.

The Executive Committee of the Federation emphasized the importance of the Student Christian Movements in a world tormented by political problems, when it made this statement, "SCM's have a unique responsibility...As Christian communities in the University, they are equipped to wrestle intellectually with political issues, to look for a theological and sociological understanding of the contemporary world revolutions, and to train, for the whole Church, Christians equipped to act and serve responsibly in the political sphere."(1)

The proportion of Christian students to the total university population varies greatly from country to country, as does also the strength of the Student Christian Movements.

Burma. There are 12,673(2) university students, and of these approximately 1,200(3) are Christians, in six universities. There are also 100 Christian faculty members. "A Christian Center for the students at Rangoon

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(1) Federation News. World Student Christian Federation. March 1962. p. 14.
(2) The source for the figures on university students (excluding teacher-training colleges) is UNESCO - Educational Survey of Asia. 1961.
(3) Federation News. Op.cit., March 1962. pp. 32 ff.

University has been erected and is maintained cooperatively by the Student Christian Movement and the Burma Christian Council."(1)

Ceylon. There are 5,279 university students; no figures for the number of Christians are available. In view of the revolutionary changes in social, economic and political life, "the Student Christian Movement has entered upon a period of tremendous opportunity never before parallelled."(2)

Hong Kong. There are 4,298 students in higher education. The Student Christian Movement has six branches in the various institutions. A Student Christian Center is maintained jointly by the Church and the YMCA.

India. Before Independence (1947) there were 435 colleges in India with half a million students. Today there are 934 colleges with 913,380 students. Before independence, the forty-five Protestant colleges in India were ten percent of the total; today they are only four percent. In 1950 it was estimated that there were 10,000 Christian students in the 150 branches of the Student Christian Movement.

Indonesia. There are 49,557 university students. The S.C.M. has fifteen centers with a total membership of 4,500.

Japan. There are 651,783 university students. Two types of work among students in Japan are the campus movement under the YMCA-YWCA and the church-related student group under the United Church of Christ in Japan. These two groups are working together toward a united student Christian movement. At the present time great concern is expressed by Christian students for political problems, particularly international peace, and for the witness of Christian students within the university.

Korea. There are 73,415 university students, of whom fifteen percent are Christians. There are 67 colleges in Korea. Christian students have taken a leading role in the political affairs of the nation.

Malaya. This country has 8,108 university students. The S.C.M. is comparatively young in Malaya and has three active groups. A student hostel has been organized under the Malayan Christian Council.

Pakistan. There are 126,408 university students. The S.C.M. has 300 members.

Philippines. This country has 211,901 university or college students in the score of universities and hundreds of colleges throughout the islands. The S.C.M. has 35 branches in these. There are a number of student Christian Centers sponsored by the United Church of Christ. The Evangelical Student Chapel and Center at the University of the Philippines in Quezon City is related to the Philippine Federation of Christian Churches.

(1) Thomas, Winburn T. Chapter on "The Christian Mission since 1938 in Southeast Asia" in Frontiers of the Christian World Mission since 1938. Harr, Wilber C. (Ed.) New York and London: Harper & Brothers, Publishers. 1962. p. 56.

(2) Federation News. World Student Christian Federation. November 1961. p. 32.

Thailand. There are 54,931 university and college students in Thailand. A Student Christian Center and Hostel were established after World War II by the Church of Christ in Thailand.

Taiwan. Taiwan has 27 colleges and universities with 35,000 students. Many Christian student groups are related to these institutions and some of them have their base in Student Centers.

Australia. There are 72,000 students in institutions of higher education. As new universities are created, Student Christian Movement groups are formed.

New Zealand. This country has 14,388 university and college students. Of these, ten percent are related to some Christian society.

TABLE No. 34

PROTESTANT THEOLOGICAL SCHOOLS AND BIBLE TRAINING SCHOOLS
(in Asia)

Country	Theological Institutions	Bible Schools
Japan	20	22
Korea	9	25
Taiwan	10	8
Okinawa	1	1
Hong Kong	9	23
Philippines	18	47
Indonesia	12	24
Malaya and Singapore	4	2
Thailand	4	4
Burma	10	24
Sarawak and North Borneo	1	-
Australia	-	-
New Zealand	-	-
India	50	89
Pakistan	3	6
Ceylon	2	2
Total-	153	277

Source: World Christian Handbook 1962. London: World Dominion Press.

TABLE No. 35

NATIONAL CHRISTIAN COUNCILS AND FELLOWSHIP GROUPS

BURMA	Burma Christian Council
CEYLON	The National Christian Council of Ceylon Evangelical Fellowship of Ceylon
CHINA	National Christian Council of China Chinese Christian Three-Self Movement
HONG KONG	Hong Kong Christian Council
INDIA	Evangelical Fellowship National Christian Council
INDONESIA	Chinese Foreign Missionary Union Java Evangelical Fellowship National Council of Churches in Indonesia
JAPAN	Evangelical Fellowship National Christian Council
KOREA	National Association of Evangelicals National Christian Council
MALAYA	Malaya Christian Council Singapore Evangelical Fellowship
OKINAWA	Okinawa Christian Council
PAKISTAN	All Pakistan Christian Council West Pakistan Christian Council East Pakistan Christian Council Evangelical Fellowship of West Pakistan
PHILIPPINES	Philippine Federation of Christian Churches
TAIWAN	Taiwan Evangelical Fellowship Taiwan Missionary Fellowship
THAILAND	Evangelical Fellowship National Christian Council
VIET-NAM	Evangelical Fellowship
AUSTRALIA	Australian Council of the World Council of Churches National Missionary Council of Australia
NEW ZEALAND	National Council of Churches in New Zealand Commission of Overseas Missions and Inter-Church Aid of the National Council of Churches in New Zealand Otago Evangelical Fellowship

Japan
United States
Iwo Jima
Midway
Hawaiian Islands
Mariana Islands
Saipan
Guam
Philippine Islands
Bikini
Marshall Islands
Pacific Ocean
Caroline Islands
Gilbert Islands
Christmas
New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Guadalcanal
New Hebrides Islands
Samoa
Fiji Island
Australia
New Caledonia
Tahiti
Society Islands
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SCALE OF MILES
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The Instructor Outline Maps of Asia and Australia

AUSTRALIA*

Area and People

This island continent lying south of the equator between the Pacific and Indian Oceans has an area of nearly three million square miles, just under that of the continental United States. Its more than 10 million people are overwhelmingly of British or other European origin. Formerly comprising a number of British colonies, Australia is now a member of the British Commonwealth, having gained its independence in 1901, when the six States were federated and the Commonwealth of Australia proclaimed.

Heavy immigration following World War II has substantially increased the non-British element, and Australia today is a "melting pot" of many different European nationalities. The country's primitive aborigines number about 40,000.

Population(1)	Male	Female	Total	Percentage of total
1951	4,310,933	4,216,974	8,527,907	
1961	5,354,591	5,249,345	10,603,936	
Urban				
Metropolitan	2,913,942	2,983,362	5,897,304	56.12
Other	1,362,621	1,350,497	2,713,118	25.82
Rural	1,015,091	857,390	1,872,481	17.82
Migratory	20,600	4,686	25,286	0.24

Approximately 21 percent, or about 2,000,000 people, live in rural areas. Density of population is estimated at 3.57 persons per square mile. More than 20 percent of the labor force of four million is engaged in agriculture.

Half of Australia's people live in the six State capitals, all coastal cities: Sydney, 2,183,231; Melbourne, 1,912,055; Brisbane, 621,550; Adelaide, 587,957; Perth, 420,133 and Hobart, 115, 932.

Geographical Features

Settlement is heavily concentrated along the coastal plain in the east, the southeast and southwest parts of the continent. Size of population decreases further inland, but, although great tracts of the interior are arid and could not support any population, there are still areas yet to be opened up which are suitable for close settlement.

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(1) Pocket Compendium of Australian Statistics 1962. No. 47, published by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics.

* This section is based on material prepared by Vaughan Hinton, Secretary for Public Relations of the Australian Council of Churches, January 1963.

The settled areas fall into four separate physical regions. The fertile coastal plain is a strip averaging about 40 to 50 miles in width. The main cities are contained in this belt and the rural activities are chiefly dairying, citrus fruit growing, vineyards, beef cattle raising, while in the north, near the tropics, bananas and sugar cane are grown. Behind the plain, rising fairly sharply are the plateaus which slope gradually to the inland plain. On these tablelands and their slopes, wheat and wool are produced, while on the inland plains are the important sheep and beef cattle raising areas. The 1,200 mile long Murray River and its tributaries comprise Australia's main river system. Rainfall varies greatly from 160 inches in some parts on the tropical coast to under 10 inches over 37.6 percent of the continent.

Australia today produces one third of the world's wool, and more than half of its merino fleece. It produced more than two and a half times as much wool in 1960-61 than 50 years ago, and is doing so with fewer than twice the number of sheep. Australia is one of the four great wheat exporters in the world. Other produce exported includes butter,fruit,barley,hides,beef and sugar.

Economic Situation

Vigorous economic activity since World War II has been made possible, among other things, by a large increase in income from exports and an inflow of private capital from overseas. However, in four of the last ten years there has been a surplus of imports over exports. Primary production, particularly from sheep and wool, still provides the bulk of the country's export income. Over 60 percent of export earnings come from animal products. Manufacturing industries form an increasingly large proportion of the nation's total production, most of it for home consumption. More than 1,000,000 Australians work in factories. Domestic supplies of coal, iron, copper and other minerals have enabled Australia to develop considerable heavy industry. The recent discovery of oil in commercial quantities could have important economic repercussions, for more than three million gallons is now imported annually.

Agricultural Economy

It is estimated that the agricultural area totals one million acres, or about half of the total area, but this includes vast areas of grazing land. In 1960-61 the area under crops was just over 27 million acres.

Land tenure varies in each state. About 10 percent of the land is under private ownership, with 54 percent held on a lease basis, largely from the government. The other 36 percent is either unoccupied or held for the aboriginal population.

Education

Education is compulsory between 6 years and 14 to 16 years (according to State) and the State governments provide free school facilities. There are 10,096 schools in the nation, of which 2,229 are non-government controlled. A total of 74,497 teachers are engaged teaching 1,612,281 pupils in government schools and 511,293 pupils in non-government schools. All but 246 of the non-government schools are denominational, the Roman Catholic Church conducting

1,727 and the Church of England 117. The issue of State aid for church schools is a live one and sections of the Roman Catholic Church have recently re-introduced the subject into public debate with some vigor.

Higher Education

There are ten universities and three university colleges in Australia, with faculties in agriculture, architecture, arts, dentistry, economics,education, engineering, law, medicine and science. The enrollment has risen from 31,000 in 1950 to 53,780 in 1960 and is expected to reach 96,000 in 1966, an increase of over 300 percent in 16 years. Since 1946 thousands of Asian students have studied in Australia at their own expense, and in any one year there are usually more than 9,000 sponsored or private overseas students in Australian schools, colleges and universities.

Mass Media and Communications

In 1961 Australians owned 2,250,000 radio receivers and 1,310,000 television receivers. The Australian Broadcasting Commission operates a national broadcasting service through 60 medium frequency stations, nine domestic high frequency stations and six overseas high frequency stations. Commercial companies operate 110 radio stations. National and commercial television stations are operated in all capital cities and are now being built in country areas. Religious programs occupy 3.7 percent of A.B.C. radio programs, all stations giving some time to devotional programs and broadcast services. The A.B.C. devotes 3.8 percent of transmission time on television to religious programs,which are provided by denominational and interdenominational associations in each state. "Radio Australia", the overseas broadcasting service of the A.B.C.,transmits shortwave programs of news, information and entertainment in many languages directed mainly to Southeast Asia and the Pacific. Nearly 100 daily newspapers are published throughout the Commonwealth.

Religion

According to the census of 1961, 99 percent of those who stated their religion professed the Christian faith. In the total population, 3,668,931 were Anglican, 2,620,011 Catholics, 1,076,395 Methodist, 976,518 Presbyterian, while Lutheran, Greek Orthodox and Baptists were about 150,000 each.

The Australian Council of Churches, associated with the World Council of Churches, was formed in 1947, the member churches now representing about 70 percent of the Australian population. They are the Church of England, the Methodist, Presbyterian, Greek Orthodox,Congregational churches, the Church of Christ, the Salvation Army and the Society of Friends (Quakers), Greek Orthodox, Antiochian Orthodox and Armenian Orthodox. The Serbian and Ukrainian Orthodox Churches are members of the Inter-Church Aid section of the Australian Council of Churches.

The Council operates through a number of working agencies on problems of special concern to Australians. The ACC has divisions of studies: evangelism and ecumenical promotion, Christian education; inter-church aid, resettlement and world service; Church, State and society; and work and vocation.

In 1963, chiefly through the annual Christmas Bowl appeal, £160,000 will be given by Australians to carry out a world wide program of aid to people in need. A resettlement department brings refugees and others to Australia to settle, about three percent of Australia's migrant population being ACC assisted refugees and needy people. Local inter-church councils provide opportunities for congregations to worship, study and work together.

Relations to Asia

The emergence of the European Common Market has hastened the development of trade ties with Asia in recent years. A sterling country, Australia has extensive Commonwealth trade ties and in 1960-61 31.38 percent of her imports and 21.54 percent of her exports were with the United Kingdom. Increased efforts are now being made by private industry and government agencies to foster trade with Asian countries.

Proportion of Australia's total imports and exports in relation to Asian countries in 1960-61, expressed in percentages of the whole, are shown below.

	Imports	Exports
United Kingdom	31.38	21.54
Ceylon	.94	0.77
India	2.09	1.50
Federation of Malaya	1.40	1.29
New Zealand	1.56	6.66
Singapore	0.17	1.31
China (mainland)	.36	4.29
Indonesia	2.59	.55
Japan	6.03	17.39

Australia is also a member of the Colombo Plan for co-operative economic development in South and Southeast Asia. Because of its limited capital resources, it has given increased emphasis to its technical assistance program. During 1961 training was provided in Australia for one thousand Colombo Plan students from Asia. About two thousand students in eleven Colombo Plan countries receive tuition under a correspondence scholarship scheme. In 1961, Australia provided 72 experts who served in nearly every country of the region. To the end of 1961,Australia had also spent a further £8,999,608 on technical aid to Asian countries.

The Australian Council of Churches, as a member of the East Asia Christian Conference, is closely concerned with all developments in Asia. Its Inter-Church Aid program provides for projects in the area. In the 1963 program £21,500 will be raised for specific work in Hong Kong, Indonesia, Korea,India, Japan, Ceylon and Nepal.

Australian churches of all denominations have close links with Asia through their missionary activities, having about 1,900 missionaries in Asian and Pacific countries. About 42 percent of all Australian missionary work is in New Guinea and the Pacific area and 8.5 percent in Southeast Asia.

NEW ZEALAND*

Area and People

New Zealand, an independent member of the British Commonwealth, is an island country in the South Pacific Ocean. Its mainland extends nearly 1,500 miles from north to south, in the temperate zone below the equator, and is about 1,200 miles southeast of Australia. A total area of 103,736 square miles (excluding Island Territories) makes the country a little larger than the combined areas of England, Scotland, and Wales, or of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Over nine-tenths of this area is accounted for by the two most important islands, the North (44,281 square miles) and the South (58,093 square miles), separated by narrow Cook Strait. Outside the main islands, New Zealand administers territories from the tropics to the Antarctic.

Although there are several large plains, New Zealand is a mountainous country with two-thirds of its area between 650 and 3,500 feet above sea level, and has more than 220 named mountains of over 7,500 feet.

The total population(1) in 1961 was estimated at slightly more than 2.4 million, predominantly of British origin. This includes a minority group known as the Maoris, numbering about 167,086, a brown-skinned Polynesian people whose families were living in the islands when the first white men arrived. Immigration still comes chiefly from Anglo-Saxon countries of the British Commonwealth.

The Maori People. During the 19th century, the Maoris were a dying race, at the end of the century totalling only 43,000. However, a revival of this racial group has taken place, so that by 1958 they totalled 151,000, or 6.53 percent of the population (167,086 in 1961). Primarily a rural people, the Maoris have tended to settle in the cities. In Auckland City, for example, it is estimated there are more than 15,000. They are proud of their own language and Polynesian culture, but are increasingly integrated with the New Zealand population. There are no distinctions in basic legal, educational, economic, or political rights.

Population Increase. Between 1951 and 1956 the annual rate of population increase was estimated at 2.31 percent, a fairly high rate if compared with other more developed areas. With about 50,000 inhabitants added every year, the three million mark may be reached by 1975 - a fifty percent increase within one generation. Although immigration is still a significant factor, the annual increase is due mainly to the excess of births over deaths. The Maori birth rate is much higher than that of the European. In 1956 the Maori birth rate was 45 per 1,000 as against the European birth rate of 25 per 1,000 inhabitants.

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(1) See Pocket Digest of New Zealand Statistics 1962. Department of Statistics, Wellington, New Zealand. 1962.

* This section is based on material prepared by Rev. Alan A. Brash, Secretary for Inter-Church Aid of the East Asia Christian Conference.

The density of population, however, is low - about 20 persons per square mile, as against England's 750 and Japan's 655. The densities in the North and South Islands (about nine-tenths of the area) in 1956, were 33 and 11 per square mile, respectively.

The population is mainly urban, 63 percent living in four major cities:

	1956 Census - (Including Maoris)-	1961 Census
Wellington	138,297	150,544
Auckland	381,063	448,365
Christchurch	193,367	220,510
Dunedin	99,370	105,003

Economic Situation

New Zealand is principally an agricultural country, with dairy farming and sheepherding being of first-rate importance. Rural production has been expanded through scientific research and extensive mechanization, and in recent years New Zealand has become one of the world's largest exporters of meat, butter, and cheese. Wool is also a major export. The gross national product (1958-59) was $3.1 billion, with an estimated average annual rate of growth of five percent in recent years.(1) The agricultural share of the GNP was about one-fourth.

Although farming and dairying are the most important economic activities, about 60 percent of all New Zealanders now live in towns and cities, and more work in factories than on farms.

Agricultural Area and Production. About 65 percent of the total area, or 43 million acres (including pasture land) is devoted to agriculture. It was estimated in 1960(2) that there were 84,604 farms, each with an average size of 503 acres. Fifty percent of the total arable land was privately owned; 41 percent by the Crown and 9 percent held by the Maoris.

New Zealand's agriculture is based on livestock production, with chief emphasis on the production of lambs, mutton, and wool for export. Some 20 percent of about 2.4 million acres of previously undeveloped land has now been cleared, fertilized, seeded, stocked and divided into more than 3,500 farms for settlement, mainly by ex-service men.

Trade and Commerce. New Zealand lives by external trade. In 1957 there was a total external trade per capita of 256 pounds sterling (compared with 144 for Australia, and 70 for the U.S.A.). The country is an important source of wool, meat, and dairy produce for western countries, particularly Great Britain, but is almost entirely dependent on imports for raw materials and most manufactured goods.

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(1) Notes on the Agricultural Economies of the Far East - IV Oceania. Foreign Agricultural Service, United States Department of Agricultural Service, United States Department of Agriculture. FAS M-106, December 1960. p. 7.

(2) Ibid., p. 8.

Education

Free public education is provided until the age of 19, with schooling compulsory from the ages of 7 to 15. About 90 percent of all primary pupils and 80 percent of all secondary students are educated in public schools. There are four universities in New Zealand, one in each of the four major cities. There are two "associated"agricultural colleges, one on North Island and the other on South Island.

Besides being free and compulsory, education in New Zealand is secular, and no Government subsidies are paid to schools run voluntarily by various churches. Some 90 percent of all primary school pupils and 80 percent of secondary school pupils are taught together in all the State primary and intermediate schools. It can be said that New Zealand has achieved the ideal of equality of opportunity for all in the field of education.

Class of institution	Enrollment(1)	
	1956	1960
Kindergarten	12,810	15,168
Primary Education	379,002	425,227
Secondary and Technical Schools	91,595	119,206
Technical Classes (part-time students)	37,514	54,845
Higher Education	14,716	20,362
	535,637	634,808

Religion

Protestant faiths predominate. There is no State church, and the Government gives no financial aid to any religion.

Four-fifths of the people belong to one or the other of the four main religious groups. The 1956 census reported the following distribution:(2)

	Number of Adherents	
	1951 Census	1956 Census
Church of England	726,626	780,999
Presbyterians	446,333	483,884
Roman Catholics	264,555	310,723
Methodists	156,077	161,823
Others	345,881	436,633
	1,939,472	2,174,062

Other religious groups represented are Baptists (33,910), Bretheren (22,444), Ratana (19,570), Salvation Army (14,122), Latter Day Saints (13,133), Church of Christ (10,582), Seventh Day Adventists (7,219), Lutheran (4,012), as well as Eastern Orthodox, Catholic, Hindu.

(1) Pocket Digest of New Zealand Statistics 1962. Op. cit., pp. 83-84.

(2) New Zealand Facts and Figures 1960-61. Op. cit., p. 16. Also see Pocket Digest of New Zealand Statistics 1962. Op. cit., p. 59.

Inter-Church Relationships. There are numerous organizations, indicating the willingness of the major churches to work together. Most important of these is the National Council of Churches, which includes The Anglican Church, The Presbyterian Church, The Methodist Church, The Baptist Union, The Associated Churches of Christ, The Congregational Union, The Salvation Army, The Society of Friends, The Greek Orthodox Church, The Cook Islands Christian Church. The Council has 20 local branches and special commissions for Maori, Women's and Youth concerns, and cooperates in radio and television. Other significant organizations are the Council of Christian Education and the Inter-Church Council on Public and Social Affairs (which includes the Roman Catholic Church).

Relation to Asia

Only in recent years has New Zealand become conscious of its nearness to Asia, with its 65 percent of the human race now within 24 hours travel from their shores by Boeing jet aircraft. The churches can claim to have played a significant part in this growing awareness, not only by their constant inter-church aid appeals in the interests of the Asian people, but also by their active response to the invitation given them to join the East Asia Christian Conference. While settlement in New Zealand by Asians is rigidly limited, though not entirely prevented, the coming of over 800 Asian students under the Colombo Plan and the increasing travel by New Zealanders in Asia, have strengthened the interest on both sides.

The relationship becomes urgent, in terms of trade. Particularly, there is major interest in Japan as a market for meat and wool, and as a source of manufactured goods. In such ways New Zealand's traditional sense of isolation, born of consciousness that the country lies 1,200 miles east of Australia and 12,000 miles from Britain, is being overcome.

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